VOL. XIII MARCH, 1855. NO. 4.

THE WESTERN JOURNAL AND Civilian,

DEVOTED TO

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PUBLIC POLICY,

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Published monthly at $3.00 per annum in advance.
Postage 3 Cents when paid quarterly in advance.

ST. LOUIS,
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1855.

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THE

WESTERN JOURNAL

and Civilian.

VOL. XIII. March, 1855. No. IV.

ARTICLE I.

Commerce and Government.

The accounts of laborers turned out of employment and destitute of subsistence, which daily reach us through the medium of the public press, have induced us to resume the subject of commerce and government from the leading article of the last number of the Western Journal and Civilian.

We are far from supposing that the government is chargeable with all the vicissitudes and embarrassments incident to the industrial pursuits of the country; but there is an inseperable relation between government and commerce, by reason of which the latter is necessarily affected by the acts of the former, and hence the government cannot escape from at least a portion of the blame in all cases of great financial embarrassment.

Labor being necessary to the production of property, the legislator should endeavor to guard the operatives as far as practicable against the want of profitable employment; and in all acts of legislation touching the public economy, he should aim to call into active operation all the labor and skill which the country affords. For it is obvious that any public measure calculated to deprive men of profitable employment, is an evil both individual and national.

The consequences that flow from public measures or other causes which deprive individuals of employment, are not generally appreciated; for the reason that, with rare exceptions, men are not in the habit of looking beyond the immediate inconvenience and privations of the operative. To illustrate the effects of a public measure calculated to depress the profits of any particular branch

of industry, and deprive the operatives of employment, we will take the iron trade as an instance.

The iron trade of Great Britain has been developed by a system of protection. The business in that country is based upon solid capital; the operatives in every department are skillful and thoroughly trained, and the iron masters acting in concert expand or contract their operations and prices according to the nature of the demand. Thus firmly established and acting together, it is always in their power to control the iron trade of this country, and drive our operatives out of employment, unless they are sufficiently protected by a tariff on the importation of foreign iron. Now, if for want of such protection, ten thousand operatives should be turned out of employment, it is obvious that the increase of the national wealth would be diminished; and besides the inconvenience and pecuniary privations to the operatives, the home market for agricultural products would be lessened, and the demand for foreign iron increased. In such a case, the operatives who would be compelled to engage in farm labor, would increase the competition in a department of industry already supplied with hands sufficient, in ordinary times, to overstock the markets with its products. But in a national view, the losses do not stop here: the quantity of iron, which would have been produced by the operatives turned out of employment, must be purchased abroad, and after making all legitimate deductions, we think it will clearly appear that the price paid for the iron of foreign make would be a total loss to the national wealth. This illustration is applicable to most, if not all, branches of industry in which the operatives are employed in converting our own raw material into commodities suitable for use and consumption.

No people can be permanently prosperous who pursue a policy which subjects their industrial pursuits to the control of other nations; for besides the political and financial vicissitudes which occur among themselves, they are continually liable to be affected by the ever changing condition of the countries with whom they carry on an extensive commerce. This proposition is fully illustrated by our commercial relations with Great Britain. Through the medium of these relations we are made to feel the influence not only of her political, industrial and financial institutions, but are materially affected by the character of her seasons and crops.

The statesmen and public economists of the United States, look-

ing to the policy of Great Britain as an example worthy of imitation, seem to have confined their view to the present condition of that country without studying its history during the long period when protection to British industry by a high tariff of duties was the established and cherished policy of the government. Were they to study the history of England from the beginning of the eighteenth century to the present time, they would discover that protection to home industry has been the settled and uniform policy of both the government and people throughout this entire period. While the business of manufacturing and mining was comparatively limited, capitalists were encouraged to invest their means in those pursuits by the enactment of laws calculated to protect them against foreign competition. But when the products of those departments of industry began to exceed the home demand, the government adopted a new principle of protection, which consisted in abolishing the duties on raw material, and reducing the tariff on the more neessary appliances of subsistence. There can be no doubt of the wisdom of this policy, for it enabled the English manufacturers to compete with all other nations in foreign markets, and to extend their business indefinitely. Thus we perceive an admirable consistency in the policy of that country in respect to manufacturing and mining throughout all their stages. This indirect mode of protection is denominated "free trade" by the people of Great Britain, and charmed by the term without comprehending the extent of its application, a certain school of political economists in this country seems disposed to repudiate protection to American industry in all its forms. Impelled by a desire to extend our commerce with foreign nations, they would dry up its sources at home. They would exhaust our own soil to fertilize foreign fields, and feed foreign operatives. They would leave the amount of production in this country to depend upon the strength of the human arm, and exchange the products of American toil for the fabrics of foreign machinery. In fine, they seem to be deluded by the idea of enriching the nation by foreign trade without first establishing a solid basis for its operations.

It is not in the nature of things, that a nation can increase its wealth by exchanging its raw material and products of manual labor for the fabrics produced by the machinery of other countries. For, whether the raw material be taken from the forest, the mine, or the cultivated field, it is so much drawn from the wealth of the

country, which must be exhausted in time if the process is continued. The case is altogether different however in respect to a manufacturing people: they acquire wealth by exchanging the products of their own art for the raw material of other countries. Intellect, science and machinery constitute their chief elements of wealth, and so far from being exhausted by producing articles of value, they improve and become more productive by use.

It is not until a people become producers of manufactured commodities beyond the amount required for domestic consumption, that their national wealth can be materially increased by foreign commerce.

The history and present condition of the older States of the Union most fully attest the truthfulness of the views which we have attempted to illustrate. Some of those States eschewed manufacturing, and persevered in producing grain and other agricultural products for exportation until they exhausted their soil; and many of their citizens being unable to obtain subsistence from their worn out fields, were compelled to emigrate to new countries, while the States which devoted more attention to manufactures have steadily increased in wealth, though possessing a soil and climate less favorable to agriculture than their southern neighbors. Here is a lesson for the study of the people inhabiting the new States, and we trust they will profit by its teachings.

In our efforts to place the industry and commerce of this country upon a solid basis, we have uniformly addressed our arguments to the people; the subject is one which involves the well-being of themselves and their posterity to an indefinite period. It is vain to appeal to politicians or Congress until the subject is understood and fully appreciated by the people—the real producers—who supply commerce with its commodities; and, in their two-fold character of producers and consumers support the merchants, the carriers, the bankers and a numerous host of non-producers who live by their wits and revel upon the products of honest toil.

It is of vital importance to the new States that sound principles of political economy should be adopted in the beginning of their career; for when the industrial pursuits and economy of a community have been established upon wrong principles, the vice is transmitted from one generation to another, and a reform is scarcely practicable, until the consequences are fully developed. Such has been the case with some of the older States of the Union, and

such must be the condition of the new States, if they supinely acquiesce in the policy dictated by Great Britain, and advocated by some of our own statesmen.

The valley of the Mississippi is too remote from the European markets to carry an a profitable exchange of commodities with the producers and consumers of that country. For whatever may be our facilities of transportation, the people of the Atlantic slope and of Canada, by reason of their proximity to the Atlantic ports, possess advantages over us which we can never overcome. Hence it is obvious that, unless the inhabitants of the Mississippi valley diversify their pursuits, avail themselves of the agency of machinery, and establish a home market for their raw material, they must be content with smaller profits on their labor than are realized by their eastern brethren. But possessing the elements of wealth in profusion, we could by a judicious system of economy equal if not excel any other people upon the globe in the acquisition of individual and social wealth. But to enable us to realize this state of prosperity, we must have the co-operation of the General Government. We should not ask for a tariff which would operate as a total prohibition of any foreign commodity, but insist upon the constitutional right of a reasonable degree of protection to our industry in all its varied departments—protection to labor, protection to capital, and protection to machinery. Or, in the words of President Jackson, let us insist upon the adoption of "a judicious tariff," to be adjusted by the common sense of the people, and adapted to the common wants and common welfare of the nation.

But the opinion is entertained by some that, were all departments of American industry sufficiently protected to enable us to compete successfully with the labor and skill of other countries, the benefits of such a measure would be monopolized by the Eastern States, while no advantage would be gained by the people of the West. The history of tariffs and manufactures in this country gives plausibility to this opinion, but it may be observed that some important changes are going on in the condition of the Western States, and also in the minds of men both in this country and in Evrope, respecting certain principles of economy. It will not be long before the railroads of the West, in connection with river navigation, will afford facilities for collecting raw materials and distributing fabrics which will not be surpassed by any other country of equal extent. This will remove many objections whish have

heretofore existed against manufacturing and mining in the valley of the Mississippi.

And besides, mankind are generally coming to the very rational conclusion, that it is more convenient and profitable to go where bread, provisions and raw materials abound, than to pay the cost and charges incident to their transportation across continents and oceans during their lifetime. With these facts in view, it is reasonable to conclude that, were sufficient protection given to manufacturing and mining, capital and labor would seek the valley of the Mississippi for employment rather than locate in the Eastern States. But should this not be the case, it would still be much better for the West to exchange its commodities with the Eastern States than with foreign countries.

We are not so vain as to imagine that anything we can say will in the slightest degree affect the policy of the present administration; but regarding the protection of American industry as a great national measure in which the people of the West should feel a special interest, we conclude that it is time that the discussion of the subject should be commenced with reference to the next presidential election.

We are aware that some of our patrons are opposed to the adjustment of a tariff with a view to protection, and to such, and indeed to all, we desire to say that we have not discussed the subject in a partizan spirit. We have aimed to treat it simply as a branch of political economy, to which we have given much consideration; and feeling a deep conviction of the soundness of our views, we should have done violence to our sense of duty as public journalists, had we not given them to our readers.

Having placed our views and opinions upon record, we dismiss the subject, leaving its further discussion to the newspaper press and the people to whom we commend it, not as a party question, but as a national measure, upon the issue whereof depends, in a good degree, the independence and permanent prosperity of our common country.

ARTICLE II.

An Essay on the Preservation of Universal Peace.

BY HON. A. BEATTY.

Continued from page 200.

It may be asked, how shall we be able to transport to Liberia the great number of persons of colour now in the United States, and the rapid increase of those numbers, as shown by our census? I will endeavour to show that this is quite practicable. The coloured population—free and slaves—in 1790, as compared with the white population, was as 1 is to 4_{100}^{26}, and in 1850, as 1 to 5_{100}^{49}, throwing off minute fractions. During the intervening period the slaves of Louisiana, acquired by purchase, were introduced, and but few colonists sent to Liberia. It must be recollected also that the importation of slaves from Africa was not prohibited until after the year 1808. Yet the white population had so far exceeded the increase of the coloured as to stand 5_{100}^{49} instead of 4_{100}^{26}. In future there can be no importation of slaves from Africa, and the number of emigrants and colonists to Liberia is annually increasing. From these facts we can safely infer, that in future the relative increase of the white over the coloured population will be considerably enlarged. The increased emigration from Europe, amounting probably to a quarter of a million annually, will largely increase the disproportion between the white and black population. Now if our *ability* to colonize our coloured population should increase only in proportion to the increase of our white population, it is evident that the increase of our coloured population will present no obstacle to the complete colonization of them.

But as our commerce and wealth increase much more rapidly than our population, our *ability* to colonize persons of colour will increase relatively, much more rapidly than our coloured population will increase. Consequently, our *means* for colonizing *all* our coloured population will every year increase.

It is asked, whence are to be derived the resources necessary to colonize the half million of persons already free, and those hereafter voluntarily emancipated, or emancipated by a system of gradual emancipation, adopted by one or more of the slaveholding States? If we reflect for a moment upon the *fact* that two hundred thousand poor emigrants annually find the means of paying their passage across the ocean, from the various countries in Europe, in order to become citizens of this free republic, surely no reasonable man can doubt our *ability* to transport an equal number to Liberia every year.

But in the present condition of the Liberian republic, she would not, during the next twenty years, be able to receive and sustain comfortably an *average* of more than twenty-five thousand annu-

ally, equal to half a million in twenty years. In the succeeding twenty years she will probably be able to receive and sustain upon an *average*, fifty thousand, equal to one million for the twenty years. In the next period of twenty years, she will probably be able to receive and sustain upon an *average* one hundred thousand annually, equal to two millions for the twenty years. For the next twenty years she will probably be able to receive upon an *average* two hundred thousand annually, equal to four millions for the 20 years, and seven millions and a half for the entire period of eighty years. If we add to this number of *colonists* the emigrants of free persons of colour, during the period of eighty years, to the Liberian republic, the number of *coloured* persons now in the United States (by the last census 3,633,150,) and their *future increase* will have been nearly exhausted. There would probably be left only a few aged persons of colour who may be unwilling to emigrate to Liberia.*

Thus it will be seen that two hundred thousand annually will be the greatest number to be colonized in any one year, and that number only after the lapse of nearly eighty years, when we shall have a white population of one hundred millions in the United States.

I have thus shown that we have abundant means for colonizing the whole of our coloured population; and that the work can be fully accomplished within a period of eighty years, provided the slaveholding States shall second the system of colonization by furnishing with sufficient rapidity subjects for carrying it on with the requisite speed. Voluntary emancipation will contribute more and more, every year, to carry on the benevolent work of freeing our coloured population. By the census of 1850, the number of free coloured persons was 428,661. The natural increase, together with those since emancipated and not sent to Liberia, would probably make the actual number, on the 1st of January, 1855, half a million. If these were all willing to go to Liberia, they would afford a full supply of colonists during the first period of twenty years. But some of these would doubtless refuse the offer of a free passage to Liberia. The deficiency occasioned by such refusal would probably be made up by the natural increase, after 1st of January, 1855, and voluntary emancipations during the first period of twenty years. During the second period of twenty years, we must look to other sources for a sufficient supply of colonists to carry out the proposed plan of relieving the country from the evils of slavery. This supply can only arise from the adoption of a system of gradual emancipation by some of the slaveholding States, whose example will be followed by others, in proportion as the increased white population shall relieve the several States from

* This estimate allows for an increase of coloured population of near four millions during the eighty years.

the necessity of slave labor, and show by experience that *free labor* is more profitable than the labor of slaves.

The adoption of a system by which children of slave parents born thereafter, shall be free at a given age, say twenty-one or twenty-four years, cannot be objected to on the ground of interfering with *vested rights*, because no person can have a *vested right* in children thereafter born; nor can such a system be charged with *injustice*, because the *services* of boys and girls till the age of twenty-one or twenty-four will afford a full compensation for rearing them, and learning them to read and write, and simple arithmetic.

It may be objected, that by the refusal of some of the States to adopt a system of gradual emancipation, the proposed system for relieving the country from the evils of slavery, cannot be fully carried out. If such should be the case, the good work would notwithstanding be accomplished *in part*, and we may safely trust in the good Providence of God, that so benevolent an undertaking will be fully accomplished in his good time.

If I have not made a sufficient allowance for the natural increase of the coloured population of the the United States during the eighty years estimated for the colonization of the coloured race in Liberia, an additional twenty years will be amply sufficient to complete the glorious work of restoring the children of Africa to their native homes.

I have shown that the United States do now, and will possess sufficient resources to colonize the entire race of coloured persons. But the means by which these resources can be brought most conveniently to aid in carrying on the system of colonizing persons of colour, will be best learned by experience.

Hitherto voluntary contributions of benevolent individuals, and liberal grants by some of the States, have furnished the means of sending to Liberia as many colonists as could be conveniently provided for. But the capacity of that Republic for receiving colonists, is increasing so rapidly that largely increased numbers may be sent out annually, if the necessary funds are provided. A reasonable hope may be indulged that so many additional States will liberally contribute to this object, in each succeeding year, as to enable the colonization society to send to Liberia the numbers in each twenty years, estimated in this essay.

But if there should be a failure to derive resources from States and individual contributions to such an amount as would be requisite to carry on the system with the necessary speed, other means must be resorted to. On this subject, I make another quotation from the eloquent speech of Dr. Fuller:

"God calls upon us to make some atonement for the wrongs which have been done by our forefathers to that continent (Africa). I say there are multitudes this day, who are willing to impoverish themselves and their children, if they can see how they can benefi-

these human beings, and Congress ought to meet such cases promptly. Let us improve man. That is the highest aim. Now I am going to venture an opinion. I think Congress ought to go further. I am no statesman, no politician; I am an humble minister of God, and what I am now about to say, will perhaps seem like insanity to some people, but if it be insanity, it has come upon me as insanity never came upon man—by the painful, prayerful, calm protracted contemplation of a great subject. Let not what I say then be scouted; let it be weighed and pondered calmly. I am supposing now that there are many at the South who are anxious to do something for the African, but see not what they can do; and I am supposing that the multitude at the North feel, as I know they feel, a willingness to make sacrifices for this purpose, but they see how valueless are harangues and books, and pictures and prints, because the destiny of the African is in the hands of his master. Supposing this state of things to exist, and I believe it exists to an extent of which few have any conception, cannot the Legislation of this Union be wisely adjusted so as to meet such an emergency? I am not given to circumlocution when I have anything to say. What I wish to say is this: does not a sacred duty to Africa, and the salvation of this country, truth, love, justice, require that Congress should be ready to interpose, not merely to deport, but to redeem, to purchase the slaves of those who are willing to engage in an arduous, tedious, but most sublime undertaking? "Why," says the abolitionist, "we never will consent to that in the world, it is acknowledging the right of the master." But is that man a friend to the African? The right exists; no earthly authority can destroy it; and is not the elevation of a human being better than the maintenance of these absurd abstractions? But I put out of view the fact that we of the South, obtained a good part of these slaves from the North, who imported them into our Southern harbors. I wish to mention a very singular fact, and if Dr. Wayland was here, I have no doubt he would not object to my mentioning it. At the time he was writing letters to me against slavery, and I putting it upon the true ground on which it stood, he was situated in Providence, R. I., and I in Beaufort, S. C. Some of my ancestors recollected the time when out of Providence the slave ships brought slaves into Beaufort, S. C., and my forefathers bought them from the very people who built up Providence. But I put out of view that fact; and I say to those abolitionists, admit, for argument's sake, a calumny which I deny and detest, that we are robbers; suppose your child is in the hands of a robber, will you redeem that child and set him free, or will you say it would be admitting the right of the robber, and I will not redeem him?"

Here is a true statement of the case. If the South is blameable for holding Africans in slavery, the North is equally blameable for carrying them thither and selling them for slaves. All parts of

our country are to blame for not having hitherto adopted more efficient measures for the removal of the evils of slavery. "God calls upon us to make some atonement for the wrongs which have been done by our forefathers." If we hesitate, if we fail to do our part, each one of us will have to share in the responsibility. God is *just.* In his good time he delivered the Israelites from the tyranny of the Egyptians; and he afflicted them sorely for refusing to let them depart. Let us, while there is yet time, commence the making of atonement for the wrongs of our forefathers, and our own wrongs, in holding our fellow-beings in a state of slavery. A sudden and immediate emancipation would be attended with great evils to both the white and black races; but a system of gradual emancipation would be followed by great benefits to all concerned; and would be making the proper atonement for past errors.

During the administration of John Quincy Adams our revenues from imports averaged about twelve and a half millions of dollars; and were sufficient to meet all the economical wants of the country. In twenty-four years the revenues have risen to fifty millions per annum, and will probably continue to increase at least as rapidly as our population. The United States could furnish abundant means for carrying on the proposed system of colonization without being at all cramped in its fiscal operations. Nay it would be the most useful and profitable way of appropriating its surplus revenues, and would do away the temptation of engaging in war to relieve the over-burdened treasury. If the power of Congress to make appropriations for freeing and colonizing our coloured population, should be objected to on constitutional grounds, and if such objections are well founded, *let the constitution be so amended as to confer the power.*

God permitted the African race to be brought to our shores for purposes of ultimate good. That good will be accomplished by restoring them to their native country, by whose means God will rear up a great Christian nation composed of colonists and civilized natives, and who, in the wise dispensations of the Divine Ruler of the Universe, are destined to spread Christianity over this quarter of the globe. Dr. Fuller remarks, "Here am I, a Christian —I look to God in this matter, and to God alone. I have ceased from man long ago. If anything *be* done, it must be prompted by a christian spirit and principle."

If this were an essay on colonization, I would deem it proper to refer to other speeches delivered on the occasion on which Dr. Fuller spoke so eloquently, particularly to the very able and eloquent speech of Mr. Clay, and the very instructive and interesting speech of Mr. Latrobe.

To understand the subject of colonization fully, the history of the society, from its origin in 1817, down to the present time, should be carefully examined, from which the most favorable conclusions as to its ultimate and complete success would be drawn.

But this is an essay on the cessation of *war*, and the means of preserving *universal peace* among all nations. I have only deemed it necessary to examine the slavery question so far as it has relation to the best means of preventing a dangerous collision among the States of the Union, arising out their difference of opinion in relation to our coloured population, and the best means of settling that vexed question.

Patience and *union of effort* will, in time, bring about an adjustment of this subject, by perfecting and carrying out a practical scheme of colonization; and in this way only can this distracting subject be completely quieted.

But without the exercise of great prudence and wisdom, there will be danger in the meantime of a collision arising out of the application of new States for admission into the Union with or without restriction as to slavery.

By the Missouri compromise, that State was admitted without restriction as to slavery, and by a permanent provision of the act of Congress, admitting Missouri, it was provided that no State formed out of the then Territory of the United States, lying north of 36° 30′ North Latitude, should thereafter be admitted with the institution of slavery. The fair inference from the law is that no objection was to be made to the admission of slaveholding States, formed out of Territory lying south of the line 36° 30′ North Latitude. This compromise was carried into effect, and quieted all agitation on the subject of admitting slaveholding States into the Union for a period of thirty years. But upon the acquisition of California, which was not embraced by the Missouri compromise, and containing territory lying on both sides of the compromise line, a new difficulty was presented. It presented a case not embraced by that compromise, and a new principle was settled as to States formed out of that Territory, that the citizens of such States should decide whether slavery should be excluded or admitted.

The question seemed now to be settled, both as to the Territory owned by the United States, when the Missouri compromise took effect, and as to Territory since acquired.

If the question had been permitted to rest here, it might have been reasonably hoped the same good effects would have resulted, which followed the Missouri compromise. But unfortunately there was a clause introduced in the bill, establishing the Kansas and Nebraska Territories, which repeals the slavery restriction as to States formed out of the United States Territory lying north of 36° 30′ North Latitude, which again throws open the question of slavery restriction upon the application of new States for admission into the Union. The United States never produced a more clear sighted and far-seeing statesman than Mr. Clay. To show his views in relation to the Missouri compromise and the happy effects of that measure, I quote the following extract from a speech of his delivered at Lexington, soon after that measure took effect.

"With respect to the subject which no doubt suggested the expression of the leading sentiment of the toast with which he had just been honored, he would say that he had certainly felt most intensely the awful importance of an amicable settlement of the Missouri question, and he had devoted himself to it with his utmost zeal. Nor would he under any affectation of humility deny that his exertions may have somewhat contributed to putting it to rest. But its adjustment ought mainly to be ascribed to those strong feelings of attachment to the Union which exists in all parts of it; to the deep conviction that *without it our country would be* exposed to the greatest calamities, rent into *miserable petty States, and then convulsed by perpetual perils and wars:* and to those patriotic members of the House of Representatives from the other section of the confederacy who nobly risked their personal popularity for the good of the whole nation. The question, we may indulge the hope, is happily settled. And we should hasten to forget all the painful and disagreeable incidents by which the agitation of it was attended.*

I have italised one clause of the extract to show Mr. Clay's strong conviction of the evils which would have resulted from leaving the question unsettled when agitated in 1821. Mr. Clay indulged the hope that the question was "happily settled;" but the last Congress has again unsettled the distracting question, and the solemn question now is, what is the proper remedy? Obviously to correct the error of the last Congress by repealing the *repealing clause* in the Nebraska bill, and re-enacting the compromise confirming 36° 30′ North Latitude as the permanent boundary between the slaveholding and non-slaveholding States.†

II. Difference of opinion arising from the supposed antagonistic *interests* of the different parts of the United States, forms the next most threatening cause of separation and consequent wars between the different subdivisions of this great Republic.

This subject has been the fruitful source of political agitation in the different parts of the Union in times past; and on some occasions the matter assumed a very threatening aspect. Time has softened down the excited feelings and asperities of political partizans, and there is now just grounds for hoping that the subject will undergo a more calm and dispationate consideration.

The population of the Union is now more than twenty-six millions, and experience shows that our numbers (white and coloured,) will double in twenty-five years, and, consequently, in fifty

* Niles' Register, vol. 20, p. 301.

† NOTE.—Having expressed no opinion through the medium of our Journal in respect to the act repealing the Missouri compromise, we take this occasion to state that though we were decidedly opposed to that provision in the "Nebraska Bill," yet as we can perceive no practical benefit to be derived from restoring the boundary line between the free and slave States as defined by the law of 1820, we are disposed to submit to the present law rather than to see the subject again agitated.—*Editor of W. J. & C.*

years our population will be at least one hundred millions. The consumption of sugar will increase at least as fast as our population. If we remain united, the sugar planters and cultivators of rice will supply almost exclusively this vast and rapidly increasing population, because of the protection of a duty for revenue purposes, or even beyond that if necessary to encourage these important productions of home industry. Such protection will give *steadiness* to the home market, and thus the producers of sugar, knowing the extent of the home market, will be able to direct all their energies to produce such a supply as will supercede the necessity of importing any considerable quantity of sugar except when some casualty may greatly reduce the home supply, and then importations will only be temporary. But if the cane-growing States were severed from the Union, their productions would be subject to the same duty as other imported sugars would have to pay, and consequently the profits of the sugar planters would be reduced so much per pound as would be equivalent to the duty on other sugar. Besides he would have to compete on terms of equality in the American market with the producers of sugar in all countries fitted for the production of that article. A moment's reflection will convince the growers of the sugar cane, that their interests would be most materially injured by a severance of the Union, and the constituting of an independent Republic composed of the cotton and sugar producing States.

The advantages of the Union to the cotton growing States are equally manifest. The rapid increase of our population will not only furnish a very great and rapidly increasing market for raw cotton for *home consumption*, but this market will be greatly increased to furnish our manufacturers with the raw material to supply the *foreign demand* as well as the *home consumption* of their cotton fabrics.

Experience shows that our manufacturing establishments of cotton cloth have already obtained such perfection as to enable them to furnish cotton cloth of certain descriptions at so low a rate as not only to supercede importations from abroad, but that they can successfully compete with *British manufactures* in foreign markets. A few years ago this was thought to be impossible; now it is a well ascertained fact. And as we are every year acquiring more and more experience, our success in meeting British competition in markets where both are admitted upon terms of equality, will become more and more obvious. It was thought such a state of things could never be realized, because of the great cheapness of labor in Great Britain. But this disadvantage is more than overcome. 1st. By the lower price of the raw material grown in our own country. 2. By the extensive use of machinery and water power. 3. By the great ingenuity and skill of American mechanics in bringing all improvements to the highest state of perfection. 4. By the cheaper subsistence of workmen, in conse-

quence of the cheaper living in this country than in England. And 5. By the increased price of labor in England occasioned by the vast increase of emigration from that country to the United States.

Giving due weight to these circumstances, we may confidently conclude that, at no distant day, the cotton mills of the United States will not only manufacture *all the cotton fabrics* required for home consumption, but that an immense amount of them will be shipped to foreign markets. How very important then will be the home market for raw cotton to the cotton growing States for all time to come, if we remain a united people. If the Union should be severed, the cotton growing States would no longer enjoy the exclusive benefit of the home market for raw cotton. It would be subject to such duties and restrictions as the importing country should think proper to apply. It would moreover have to meet the introduction of India raw cotton upon terms of equality.

The growth of raw cotton, within the next fifty years, in South America and Africa, will be greatly increased, and would very much interfere with the culture of that article in the United States, if the home market were not protected by a duty on the foreign production. But there need be no apprehension of such interference, whilst there is secured to the home production the exclusive benefit of the home market, and an equal participation in the advantages of all foreign markets.

But citizens of the Middle and Western States may complain that, by protecting the home production of sugar and raw cotton, by levying a duty on the foreign articles, they will be compelled to pay a higher price for these articles, than if they were suffered to come into free competition with the home product; that the duty on the foreign articles is *a bounty* to the home producers, paid out of the pockets of the people who consume these articles; and that, therefore, they are *taxed* to increase the profits of the producers of cotton and sugar.

But let us calmly enquire whether there is any just ground of complaint on this score. It may be true that the consumers of sugar, in the present state of things, may pay a small sum more for that article than they would be obliged to pay *temporarily*, if the duty on sugar were discontinued. At present the sugar growing country affords a very valuable market for bread stuffs, beef, pork, lard, tallow, butter, cheese, and other articles; and for the manufacture of hemp, rope, cotton bagging, &c., and cotton goods of all kinds. These and other productions of the Middle and Northern States enable them to carry on a very valuable commerce with the sugar producing part of the Union. But if foreign sugar were to be admitted free of duty, or at a low *ad valorem* rate, the article would be so much reduced in price that Louisiana and other States engaged in the culture of the sugar cane, would no longer be able to continue the production of sugar; and of necessity, the cultivators of that article would be obliged to turn their attention to some other agricultural product. They must have bread and

other necessary articles of subsistence. They could no longer exchange sugar for them. They would of necessity be compelled to rely upon their own productions, such as corn, rice, potatoes, millet, banana, &c. Although the raising of hogs, grazing of cattle, mules, sheep, &c., may not be very suitable to their climate, yet as they could no longer procure a supply of these essential articles in exchange for sugar, necessity would compel them to produce them. And now what advantage would the consumers of sugar gain by procuring a supply of that article a cent a pound cheaper than they now pay for it? The cultivators of wheat, rye, barley, oats and corn; and the producers of stock-hogs, cattle, sheep and mules will have lost a most valuable market for these articles, and the value of those for which a market may be found elsewhere, would be considerably lessened in consequence of the production exceeding the demand. The loss thus sustained will exceed more than five-fold the amount saved by the consumption of *cheap sugar*. But this is not all. The West India cultivators of sugar—as it will be their interest to do—will send us such quantities of sugar at low rates, as will effectually break down and destroy the culture of the sugar cane in the United States; and when this is accomplished, having now the command of the market without competition, and that being but scantily supplied, in consequence of the diminished production, they will have it in their power to increase the price so as to make consumers pay more in a few years, than they would have paid if the duty on foreign sugar had not been reduced. This reasoning will apply to all other consumers of sugar as well as to agriculturists, because they would exchange what they had to spare for sugar, and it would be their interest to preserve a steady market for their products, and a regular supply of sugar at steady and uniform prices.

The same course of reasoning will apply to cultivators of cotton. If their business should be destroyed, or greatly injured, by the introduction of foreign raw cotton, duty free, or at very reduced rates, from all other countries, they could no longer furnish a very valuable market for horses, mules and other productions of the Middle, Eastern and Western States, which they now require. The loss of this market would far exceed in value the amount of duty on imported raw material.

To illustrate the advantages resulting from placing manufactures by the side of producers, I will refer to the familiar case of the manufacturers of iron. We have the raw material for the most extensive manufacture of iron in the world, and the rapidly increasing consumption of iron in our country, is destined to give employment to a very great number of our male population, in digging and transporting coal, and producing iron in all its different stages of manufacture, from the pig metal to the purest steel. The men thus employed, and their families, will all be consumers of agricultural products, and of clothing of cotton, wool and leather,

thereby creating an extensive and very valuable *home market* for these articles. By thus encouraging *home industry*, we shall annually save the large amount which we should otherwise be compelled to pay to foreigners for the article of iron in its various stages of manufacture. To form some idea of the immense quantity of iron required for home consumption, I refer to the Western Journal and Civilian, published at St. Louis, for the month of October, 1853, p. 116, from which it appears that the quantity of *manufactured iron*, in the form of rails, bars, hoops, &c., shipped in the year 1846 from Liverpool to New York, Boston and Philadelphia, amounted to a fraction over twenty-seven thousand tons; and in the year 1852, from and to the same places, 168,728 tons, being more than *six times* the quantity imported in the year 1846. This very great increase of iron, imported from *one port* of Great Britain to three of the principal ports of the United States, after the adoption of the tariff of 1846, was the consequence of levying an *ad valorem duty* of only 25 per cent. on pig iron. This *form of duty* held out a strong temptation to the foreign producers of iron to invoice this article at very low rates, as thereby they would greatly diminish the duty; and by making consignments to their agents in the United States, sales could be made at such rates as to secure them valuable profits, and yet undersell American manufacturers. Thus in a few years they were enabled to break down and destroy all competition in our markets. Having accomplished this object, they found no difficulty in idemnifying themselves for small profits in past years by increasing *the price of foreign iron*, which they could now readily do, as they had no longer any serious competition from American producers of iron.

The apparent saving to American consumers by the reduction in the price of iron, under the tariff of 1846, has been far more than counterbalanced by the greatly increased price of iron, since that period occasioned by the breaking down of the iron establishments in the United States, thus leaving the foreign manufacturers free from all home competition. The price is now nearly double what it was soon after the tariff of 1846 took effect. The home manufactories of iron having been suspended very generally, these high prices will probably continue, until a general resumption of the business of manufacturing iron in the United States. But iron manufacturers will be slow to resume their business because they know that, so long as the tariff of 1846 remains in force, they will be liable to be broken up by foreign manufacturers, resorting to the same means which proved so destructive to our iron establishments, after the adoption of the tariff of 1846. By the unwise course of our government, in levying *ad valorem*, instead of a *specific* duty on iron, our manufacturers of that article not only sustained immense losses, but were obliged to become *producers*, instead of *consumers* of agricultural products. Besides the whole

business of the country has been greatly deranged, and an immense amount of wealth sacrificed, for it is evident we have the means of making every pound of iron, in all its different forms, which the country needs, and the vast sums expended in buying railroad bar and sheet iron might have been saved.

The obvious remedy for the injury resulting from our past policy, is to levy a *specific duty* on imported iron to such an amount as will secure permanence to the home manufacture of iron, in all its branches. This protection should be so arranged as not to exclude a wholesome foreign competition. This would occasion a steadiness in the price of iron, which would prevent the consumer from being imposed upon, and the manufacturer from being borne down by the machination of foreigners.

Let such a system be adopted and *persevered in* for all time to come, and we shall in a short time, not only make all the iron we need at reasonable prices, but will build up a *home demand* for agricultural and manufacturing products of our own country, of very great value for domestic consumption, and much for exportation. The home manufacture of clothing of all kinds, blankets, carpets, &c., will be encouraged; and these will afford encouragement to the wool grower, the grazier, the producer of breadstuffs, &c., for the manufacturers of cotton cloths, woollen goods, blankets, &c., will be consumers of breadstuffs as well as the manufacturers of iron.

The extensive proportion of our country producing wheat, rye, corn, barley, oats, hemp, flax, &c., and rearing horses, mules, cattle, hogs and sheep (except wool), requires no protection, because the foreign cannot compete with the home productions of these articles, but it is of very great advantage to the producers of breadstuffs and stock to have a *home market* for them, in aid of the foreign market.

It is, therefore, the interest of that large portion of the United States engaged in the production of breadstuffs and grazing cattle, mules, &c., to contribute all in their power to the rearing up a *home market* for their productions, by affording ample protection to the producers of cotton, sugar, rice and all other products suitable to the climate of the Southern States, and also to the manufacturing establishments, in all parts of the Union, for supplying our domestic wants; and, under favorable circumstances, for exportation to foreign countries. Calm reflection upon the effects of this mutual exchange of commodities will produce conviction on the minds of all, that the interests of the whole Union will be promoted by advancing the interests and prosperity of the several parts.

III. The great extent of our territorial limit will necessarily give rise to the introduction of a great number of new States into

the Union. There will doubtless exist, in the numerous States of the confederacy, discordant interests of a local nature; but as the several States have a seperate and distinct organization of legislative and judicial powers under their distinct constitutions, these local matters will all fall within State jurisdiction, and, therefore, can never give rise to collisions among the several States of the Union.

It cannot be expected, where there are such a great number of States united under one common government, that we shall, at all times, accord perfectly in our views, in relation to measures, best calculated to promote the interests of the whole. In the nature of things contrariety of opinion, to some extent, will exist. This will be the case in all free governments. Unanimity of sentiment can only be looked for in despotic governments. But where every citizen is free to express his opinions upon all public measures; and where every man is entitled to free suffrage in the election of public officers, all should feel themselves bound to acquiesce in the decision of a majority, and peaceably conform thereto, until the minority shall become the majority, who may thus constitutionally reverse the decision of their predecessors. Different opinions in relation to political measures may give rise to ardent discussions, and in these discussions too much heat will be sometimes exhibited, but all must agree that these differences of views must be ultimately settled at the ballot box. There, and there only, can controverted questions be finally disposed of.

The power ef the national legislature to grant incidental protection and encouragement to home manufactures, has been questioned by solemn resolutions of severol of the States, among others by Virginia and South Carolina. These resolutions were adopted at a time not very favorable to calm discussion; and if we are to regard the opinions of many of the most distinguished and talented founders of the constitution, there is no just ground for complaint on this score. As early as the year 1774, at a general convention, held at Williamsburgh, Va., strong resolutions were adopted in favor of encouraging home manufactures, which received the ardent support of such men as George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Richard Henry Lee and Peyton Randolph. (Niles' Register, 1827). Two of these distinguished men, while filling the office of President, officially recommended the adoption of measures for the encouragement of home manufactures, in accordance with the views entertained by them as far back as the year 1774. This they could not have done if they believed that there was a constitutional law to the exercise of such power under the constitution.

Where public acts are questioned on the ground that they are a violation of the constitution of the United States, the opposition to

them assumes a very grave character. And unless a conviction can be produced on the minds of a large majority of our citizens; that there is no just foundation for such constitutional objections, it may be expected that opposition to such acts will be continued, and consequently the public peace endangered. In such a state of things, it would be wise to abandon measures of doubtful constitutionality, rather than endanger the public peace and the security of the Union. But if calm discussion and examination of the grounds on which public measures are challenged, because of their being unconstitutional, should produce a very general conviction that there is no just ground for such objection, and if moreover the competent judicial tribunals shall hold such acts to be constitutional, then it would be the obvious duty of the minority to yield their opinions and acquiesce in the decision of the majority.

The opinions of such men as Washington and Jefferson, who were members of the convention by which the constitution was framed, expressed at a time when party politics could have had no influence on their minds, is entitled to very great weight.

Prior to the adoption of the constitution of the United States, the individual States alone possessed the power of giving encouragement to home manufactures, by levying duties upon foreign imports, but this power was yielded up to the United States by the federal constitution. If then the *power* to protect *home industry* by levying discriminating duties on foreign imports cannot be exercised by the national government, *it is extinct.* It is impossible that the convention should have framed a constitution thus obviously defective.

It would be a strange anomaly, indeed, if neither the State nor National Government in our great and widely extended country should possess the power to *protect and encourage home manufactures*, by levying discriminating duties upon foreign importations.

(To be continued.)

ARTICLE III.

Valley of the Ohio.

BY MANN BUTLER, ESQ.

Continued from page 186, vol. XIII. No. 3.

Extenuations for the Moravian massacre; Fort Pitt surrendered by Virginia to Pennsylvania, 1780; Boundary between the two States not finally settled till 1788; Crawford's expedition against the Indians on the Sandusky river; Battle; Retreat; Disorder; Capture of Col. Crawford and Dr. Knight; Torture and burning to death of Crawford; Land system of Virginia.

Gladly does the author turn from an enormity which makes him blush to own its authors, as fellow countrymen, to some of the circumstances which may, in some slight degree, alleviate, though nothing can justify a transaction so utterly at war with justice and mercy and all the professed principles of sympathy of the American people for the children of the forest. In the first place, "very few of our men imbued their hands in the blood of the Moravians, even those who had not voted for saving their lives, retired from the scene of slaughter with horror and disgust." Still they were accessaries to the foul massacre by their dastardly inactivity. In such a case of high, momentous principle, he who is not for it, is against it. There is no medium, no middle ground, in such extremities between crime and innocence; there, backwardness and neutrality become the highest guilt.

Next the country in which this expedition originated, was a debateable land claimed by Pennsylvania and Virginia, and had become the theatre of many disorders. The reins of government never held very tight on a wild frontier, were more than usually loose in this territory. The boundary between the two States claiming this tract of country, although agreed upon by commissioners of both States, at Baltimore, on the 31st of August, 1779, was not ratified by Virginia till the 23d June, 1780; and by Pennsylvania not till 23d September, 1780. It was not finally extended until May, 1785.* To this slight extenuation of the outrage, but still not of its accompanying treachery, must be added the fact that there were circumstances calculated to implicate the Moravians in the exasperating and heart-rending ravages of a savage enemy. These had filled the hearts of the people with bitterness; many of the soldiers were men who had recently lost relatives by the hands

* Craig's Pittsburg.

of the savages. Several of them had found in the cabins of the Moravians articles which had been plundered from their own houses. One man, it is said, found the clothes of his wife and children, who had been killed a few days before by the Indians. They were still bloody; yet there was no certain evidence that these Moravians had any direct agency in these fruits of barbarous warfare. "Whatever of our property was found with them, had been left by the warriors in exchange for the provisions which they took with them."*

One certain proof of the innocence of the Moravians is found in the fact that, "when attacked by our people, although they might have defended themselves, they did *not*. They never fired a single shot. They were prisoners, and had been promised protection, and every dictate of justice and humanity required that their lives should be spared."†

No doubt the frontier was festering with the wounds of Indian barbarity; no doubt its authors were not thought entitled to the mercy they had never shown to others; no doubt that all distinctions of friendly and Christian Indians from their hostile fellow red skins were disbelieved and disregarded. Still, there are but slight extenuations which admit the truth of a transaction, and brands its perpetrators with indelible infamy and wickedness.‡

There was impending over a portion of the people involved in perpetrating the bloody proceedings against the Moravian Indians just related—a retaliation deep and fierce for their perfidious cruelty. It followed another expedition which was intended for the further Moravian towns on the Sandusky river.

On the 25th of May, 1782, 480 men mustered at the old Mingo towns, on the northwestern side of the Ohio,‖ and elected Col. Wm. Crawford, who had been an officer of high character in the continantal service, as their commander.

This party may be considered a continuation of the infamous campaign which had destroyed the Moravian Indians, under circumstances of aggravated barbarity. It set off with a determination of indiscriminate massacre, "no quarter was to be given to

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* Doddridge.

† Idem.

‡ Western Messenger, Louisville. 1837, p. 257. Destruction of the Moravian Towns, by the author.

‖ About forty miles below Pittsburg by land, and seventy-five by water. Dr. Metcalf's Narrative, in Metcalf's Collection.

any Indian whether man, woman or child."* Such were the very words of the written invitations to volunteer on this expedition.† The expedition set forward on Williamson's trail, [as the route pursued by that officer was called,] until the party reached the upper Moravian town. Here the troops refreshed their horses with the corn yet hanging on the stalks, which had been raised by the unfortunate people, who had been harried both by Indians and whites at these towns. Shortly after leaving this point, two Indians were discovered by a reconnoitering party. They were immediately fired upon without effect. So soon as the alarm of this firing reached the camp, more than half of the men rushed out, and without any command and in the most tumultuous manner, to see what had happened. An ominous indication of future behavior, which justly filled the mind of the commanding officer with gloomy apprehensions for the result of a serious conflict with the enemy. Nothing however material happened till the 6th of June, 1782; when the troops reached the site of the Moravian town "on one of the upper branches of the Sandusky river."‡ It was no longer inhabited; the high grass waved over the place, and the ruins of a few huts alone pointed out that the spot had been the abode of human beings. Its former tenants, fortunately in some degree for the character of our people and their own safety, had removed to the banks of the Scioto.

Disappointed in this first object of the expedition, a council of officers was held, by which it was determined, "to march one day longer in the direction of Upper Sandusky, and if they could not reach the town in the course of the day, to make a retreat with all speed. The expedition continued on its course until about 2 o'clock the next day, when the advance guard was attacked and driven in by the Indians, who were discovered in great numbers in the high grass with which the place was covered.‖" The enemy were endeavoring to reach a piece of wood, in the midst of an extensive prairie, when they were discovered, and anticipated in this movement by a rapid march of our troops. An attempt was then made

* Doddridge. 270.

† Heckewelder says in his Narrative, page 342, that the Indians knew this determination, which was but in conformity with their own barbarity; their spies who were constantly abroad, having found it written with coal upon the peeled and blazed trees of the camp near the Ohio. All such writings they copied, and took to some one who could read them.

‡ Doddridge, 270.

‖ Idem.

by the Indians to occupy a copse on the right of our men; but they were prevented by a gallant charge of the right wing, under Major Leet. The battle now raged throughout the line until dark, but with little effect, if the numbers killed on our side is any criterion, for they are said not to have exceeded three, with twenty-three wounded. Both parties lay upon their arms during the night; both adopted the policy of kindling large fires in their front, and then retiring some distance in their rear, to avoid being surprised by a night attack. Our men continued to occupy the battle ground the next day without interruption from the enemy who were hourly increasing in numbers. A retreat was now resolved upon, as the only means of saving the troops; it was ordered for the ensuing night. The enemy seemed to have penetrated this design, as about sun down they commenced a furious attack on every side, except that which led deeper into the wilderness towards Lower Sandusky. The line of march was taken up in this direction as the only open one; but after having marched about a mile on this course, the troops were wheeled to the left, and recovered their former trail before day-break. The march was hurried the next day without much annoyance from the Indians; notwithstanding the most culpable negligence in not keeping out guards against surprise. The numbers who composed the main body amounted to about 300 men; they effected their retreat to the settlements with safety, if not in triumph, which could with difficulty be desired by the friends of humanity.

Very different was the fate of those who had wandered from the main body, with the vain hope of escaping the pursuit of the enemy engrossed as they thought by the principal body. These were the object of the ceaseless vigilance of the Indians; and few escaped their incessant exertions, except a body of forty that broke through the Indian line, and with some loss overtook the large body of retreating troops. The enemy spread his parties from Sandusky to the Ohio, killing one man near the site of the present town of St. Clairsville. The privations and sufferings of some of the fugitives who did escape, and the torments of those who fell into the hands of the enemy, present some of the most pathetic instances of the hardships and horrors of frontier life.

Of these none is more worthy of commiseration for the agonies inflicted, the worth of the victim, and the heroic fortitude with which he bore his sufferings, than the case of Col. Crawford, the

commander of this unfortunate expedition. At the commencement of the retreat, which had been determined on, the Colonel placed himself at the head of the troops; but he had not proceeded far, when missing his son, his son-in-law, and two nephews, he stopped and called their names as the line of troops passed him; but they were not be found. After the body of troops had passed away, the failure of his horse prevented the Colonel from rejoining it. He then fell back with Doctor Knight, the surgeon of the expedition,* who continued with the Colonel, at his particular request. The party toiled on, slowly overtaking other luckless officers disabled by wounds from traveling, but with the utmost pain and difficulty. In this embarrassed condition they were surprised by a party of Indians, and taken back prisoners to Sandusky.

On their arrival at this place, mournfully depressed by the butchery of nine prisoners, on their route, five of whom were tomahawked before the eyes of the Colonel and Doctor, by the squaws and boys; they found a fire kindled—dreadful token of thsir own fate. "When we were come to the fire," says Dr. Knight, "the Colonel was stripped naked, ordered to sit down by the fire, and they [the Indians] beat him with sticks and their fists. Presently after I [Dr. Knight] was treated in the same manner. They then tied a rope to the foot of a post about fifteen feet high, bound his hands behind his back, and fastened the rope to the ligature between his wrists. The rope was long enough either for him to sit down, or walk round the post once or twice, and return the same way. The Colonel then called to *Simon Girty*, the renegade white man, asked if they intended to burn him. Girty answered, yes. The Colonel said, he would take it all patiently. Upon this, Captain Pipe, a Delaware chief, made a speech to the Indians consisting of about thirty or forty men and sixty or seventy squaws and boys. When this speech was finished, they all yelled a hideous and hearty assent to what had been said. The Indians then took up their guns, and shot powder into the Colonel's body from his feet up to his neck. I think not less than seventy loads were discharged upon his naked body. They then crowded upon him, and to my best observation, cut off his ears. When the crowd had dispersed a little, I saw the blood trickling from both sides of his head. The fire was six or seven yards from the post to which the Colonel was

* Now (1836,) of Shelby County, Kentucky, and father of Doctor Knight, of Louisville.

tied; it was made of small hickory poles burnt quite through in the middle, each end of the poles remaining about six feet in length. Three or four Indians by turns would take up individually one of these burning pieces of wood, and apply it to his naked body already burnt black with powder. These tormentors presented themselves on every side of him, so that on which ever way he ran round the post, they met him with the burning fagots and poles. Some of the squaws took broad boards upon which they put a quantity of burning coals and hot embers, and threw on him; so that in a short time he had nothing to tread on but coals of fire and hot ashes to walk upon.

In the midst of these extreme tortures he called to Simon Girty and begged to be shot; Girty not answering, he called to him again. Girty then by way of derision said he had no gun, at the same time turning about to an Indian who was behind him, laughed heartily, and by all his gestures seemed delighted at the horrid scene. Col. Crawford at this period of his sufferings, besought the Almighty to have mercy on his soul, spoke very low, and bore his torments with the most manly fortitude. He continued in all the extremities of pain, for an hour and three quarters, or two hours longer, as near as I can judge, when at last, being almost spent, he lay down on his belly, they then scalped him, and repeatedly threw the scalp in my face, telling me that was my great captain. An old squaw then got a board, took a parcel of coals and ashes, and laid them on his back and head, after he had been *scalped;* he then raised himself on his feet and began to walk round the post; they then put a burning stick to him as usual, but he seemed more insensible of pain than before." Dr. Knight was then led away, and the next which is heard of Col. Crawford is, that on the Doctor's way to a Shawanese town, to endure the same demoniac tortures, he "came to the spot where he had been burned;"* and "saw his bones lying amongst the remains of the fire almost burned to ashes." The Indian who had the Doctor in charge for the same dreadful fate, told him that it was his big captain, and gave the scalp halloo.†

Does not the thought instantly rise in the mind after reading such barbarities, that a state of society which so far from containing any principle of resistance to such enormities, could foster

* Metcalf's Collection, 46, 47.

† Idem.

them, as the ordinary military amusements of the people, ought to be suppressed, at the hazard of all consequences. If civilized States have too often exhibited scenes of merciless barbarity, they have been the occasional perversion of their ordinary humanity, rather than as in Indian and barbarous society, the very spirit of its institutions. In this light, no lover of man's happiness and freedom from the ferocities of life, ought to regret the extinction of barbarous society; or the means necessary to effect so essential a reformation among the wild tribes of America, or any other part of the globe. The same principles that consecrate the spread of civilization over the barbarous hordes of the Eastern continent, justify the establishment of the white man in the hunting grounds of the Indian savage; even at the expense of the horrible carnage which has brought about these glorious results. Such are the paramount claims of civilization, religion, freedom and intelligence above the barbarity and degradation of savage life, that it should be the prayer and ardent effort of every true admirer of the dignity, the usefulness and grandeur of the human race, that it should dissappear from the face of the globe.

Nor have our countrymen exerted a dominion over the Indian, as severe as that which displaced or conquered the barbarism of the Gaul, the Celt, or the German of ancient Europe, or the Tartar of modern Russia. Everywhere has divine benevolence decreed that the barbarian shall give way to the civilized man—barbarousness to civilization for the most glorious improvement of our race. In effecting this goodly work, it behooves all men called upon by their position and condition of life, to execute this divine decree as it is meant by Divine Goodness to be done—to do justice in mercy—to employ every alleviation in their power consistent with the extinction of the ferocious customs of savage man.

During the comparative exemption from Indian hostilities, the energies of Kentucky were now principally directed to the acquisition of land. This was particularly facilitated by the arrival of Col. Thomas Marshall and Geo. May, the surveyors for the new counties of Fayette and Jefferson, which had been formed out of the primitive county of Kentucky. These gentlemen opened their offices late in November, 1782, having been delayed by the expedition under Gen. Clark, of that year. One office was opened at Lexington, and another at Coxe's Station, in Jefferson County.

Now commenced that scramble for land, which has distressed

and disabled society in Kentucky almost as calamitously as pestilence or famine. The original source of this misfortune was issuing warrants for quantities of land without boundaries, to be surveyed under private direction, instead of its being done by public authority previous to any location by the purchaser. Could the public lands of Virginia have been delayed in their sale and survey, until they could have been laid off by public appointment, how happily might the claims of her regular soldiers have been satisfied, as well as those of her irregular though scarcely less useless pioneers in another field of public service. The residue might have been snatched from the speculator, and offered in open market, for the benefit of the treasury. If so much land would not have been sold [which never should,] more indeed than the State actually possessed, it might have commanded a higher price, and thus have netted more in reality to her public finances. But other counsels prevailed, and Kentucky was laid open to the conflicting claims of innumerable locators and surveyors on the same ground, till they produced a labyrinth of legal perplexities, through which it became necessary to pursue the landed estate of the country, and to place it in a state of certainty and security. It is not known to the author what States besides those of New England made their sales of land according to previous public surveys. This system was adopted by the Old Congress on the 20th of May, 1788; and has with numerous and most popular improvements been wisely observed to this day. This subject will present itself again.

ARTICLE IV.

From the Mining Magazine.

American Geology.*

American Geology, as such, has hitherto had no exponent, unless it is to be found in the work whose title is placed below. That it is there investigated, it will not be necessary for the reader to enter far in its pages to satisfy himself, or to become convinced

* American Geology, containing a statement of the principles of the science, with full illustrations of the characteristic American fossils. To be published in four parts, with an Atlas and a Geological Map of the United States. Ebenezer Emmons. Part I. 8vo. pp. 194. Albany: Gray & Sprague, and J. Munsell.

that he has in his hands an able work containing novel views of a new subject, or perhaps it would be more proper to say, new and independent views of a great subject. The author writes like an able and independent thinker, fearless in expressing his views from a consciousness of innate ability to maintain them. He asks not for authorities, but seeks facts. He leans upon no theories, nor fortifies himself with any opinions unless they are sustained by the senses. It is this method of entering upon the investigation of American Geology, this disregard of anything like aristocracy in science, which we like, and the result is that we have a more clear and satisfactory statement of the principles of this science, in the abstract, together with an exposition of it, than is to be found in any other of the numerous volumes issued from the press.

The work itself, of which the first part has just been issued, is published in a style unequalled by any scientific American work. The paper is no whit inferior to the best style of European books, and the execution is worthy of it.—The embellishments or illustrations, which have been executed on wood, stone, and steel, are among the very best of their kind. It truly affords a pleasing satisfaction to see that the value of such a style of publication is appreciated, and to know that the public taste of the day has compelled publishers very extensively to resort to the best skill and materials of their trade.

This undertaking is introduced to the public not with any extensive or explanatory preface, by way of an apology for doing what should always be fearlessly done, but with a few sentences, modestly entitled, "Proposals," which are briefly as follows :—

"The American Geology will be published in four or five parts, each of which will be illustrated by appropriate wood-cuts. Each part will contain about two hundred pages of letter-press. The paper and press-work of the present part shows what the mechanical execution will be.

"The fossils will be executed on stone and steel by the best artists, and no expense will be spared to make the work complete. The present part, it will be observed, contains a fine illustration of the moon's surface, on stone, by Swinton, and a quarto plate, on steel, by our distinguished engraver, J. E. Gavit. The plates of fossils will be distributed with each part, but numbered for binding together in a uniform style with the geological map when the work is complete.

"I have no design to find fault with or disparage the works that have been published by our geologists, still it cannot fail to be observed that they are not American. We want an American Geology, and all necessary means will be employed to accomplish the purpose I have proposed.

"E. E."

The preliminary remarks with which the work commences, are devoted strictly to the science of geology, and notice such points as are necessary to be understood, as lying at its base, and as exerting an influence throughout all its investigations. This is a part of a scientific method, and, likewise, indispensable for those less familiar with the general subject, at the same time it affords the ground for the distinctive features of every treatise. There may be many who will dissent from some positions of the author, but we doubt if they can combat them with better sense or more forcible logic. Take the doctrine of progressive development for instance :—

The life of plants and animals is controlled by a single element; that is, oxygen. The adaptation of organs is in accordance with its properties. It has always been so. We presume, too, that its supply has been constant—that there has been no period when its quantity was either greater or less than it is now. A different view is not sustained by the fact that at one period huge lizards predominated in its fauna, for analogy proves that this class would have perished with a less proportion than that which exists in our atmosphere at the present time.

In cases of this kind, reasoning from special structural affinities to general physical conditions is not always safe. The lias and oolitic periods abound in the remains of cold-blooded animals, whose respiratory apparatus was undoubtedly imperfect, like the lizards of the present. It is a favorite inference with a certain class of the progressive geologists, that the oxygen of the atmosphere at that period was less in proportion to its mass than it is now. But then may we not inquire, if there was less oxygen in the present atmosphere than there actually is, could the menbranous reptile lung supply the demands of the system; and is not the constituent proportion of oxygen the quantity required to give the creature the power to breathe at all? I say it is not always safe to reason from structural affinity to physical conditions. If we take any other organ, as the eye, and draw from its structure and condition analogous inferences concerning the quantity of light, we may see where it will lead us. A class of progressive geologists, maintaining that in the early periods of life the light of the globe was dim, and that but few rays shone through the hazy atmosphere, find in support of this doctrine the fossil remains of a fish or a lizard with enormous eye sockets. He believes that the large eye was adapted to a dim state of the atmosphere. Another person finds a fossil with very small bony sockets. In this case, too, it may be said the eye was very small, and hence it was adapted to an exceeding intense light—to the sun when it shone fiercely from its throne in the heavens. But again, a fossil is found entirely destitute of an eye socket, and not a vestige of an organ of vision can be found; hence, there was a time when the earth was shrouded in darkness, for in darkness animals have no need of eyes, and light would bo useless to animals destitute of the visual organ. But then we find all these states of the eye in the present arrangements for supplying the world with light. The Pomatomus telescopium, a fish of the Mediterranean, which lives in very

deep water, has a remarkably large eye. It is the position which it occupies that requires the large eye, and that large eye is adapted to its abode; and if only one-half of the light of the sun was extinguished, it probably would be unable to see at all. And just so with the reptile, if one-half of the oxygen of the atmosphere was withdrawn from it, all reptiles would die. The mole has a very small eye, but that small eye would be of no use if the ground was lighted by fewer rays. The blind fish and the blind animal of the mammoth cave live in a period when the earth is lighted up most gloriously: their abodes are dark, but yet the sun shines without in all its strength. We find, then, all conditions of the eye and the lungs at the present time. But it does not follow, that because the structure of the fossils of a given period may be found whose organs belong to a certain type, that the physical conditions of the earth were materially different from what they are now. This view of the subject does not conflict with the doctrine of adaptation, but rather sustains it. The physical conditions are first established; the organic kingdoms afterwards come in with their separate adaptations. The organisms are perfect in their adaptation to the conditions in which they are to live, as well as to the position in space, and the mediums in which they are to be placed. The doctrine of progressive development, as usually represented, seems to be untrue. It proceeds on the ground that the earliest beings were the least perfect, and that progression consisted in the creation of those animals which were more perfect in their structures than their predecessors. But who cannot see that the world is full of the same imperfections in animals now as in the beginning. Progression has no reference to perfection of structure, but to rank. Structures have been always perfect, but rank has been progressive.

The nomenclature adopted in this work contains some decided improvements; there is, however, room for more, which we hope to see at some day introduced. As here presented, it is clear and comprehensive. The rocks called *metamorphic* or *azoic* are not recognized as classes, or even subdivisions of sections, inasmuch as they have no special peculiarities which make them applicable for such purposes. Metamorphism occurs, or may occur, in all the series of rocks from the earliest to the latest sediments. It is true that the term metamorphic has been confined to gneiss, mica slate, hornblende, talcose slate, &c.; but its use is theoretical, and was thus applied on the hypothesis that those rocks are altered sediments, of which there is no evidence. The term *azoic* presupposes that our observations have made certain that which from the nature of our evidence must ever remain doubtful. There is no doubt but that granite gneiss, mica slate, &c., are azoic, but no one would think it proper to apply it to those rocks. The following is the nomenclature adopted:—

CLASSIFICATION.

			Stratified.
III. Hydroplastic,	c. *Kainozoic,*		Alluvial and drift, Pleistocene, Pliocene, Meiocene, Eocene.
	b. *Mesozoic,*		Cretaceous, Lias and Oolite, Trias.
	a. *Palæozoic,*		Permian, Carboniferous, Devonian, Silurian, Taconic.
II. Pyroplastic,	b. *Sub ærial,*		Lavas, Tufa, or Volcanic Products.
	a. *Sub marine,*		Greenstone, Porphyry, Basalt, Trap.
I. Pyrocrystalline,	b. *Laminated,*		Gneiss, Mica, Slate, Hornblende, Talcose Slate, &c. Laminated Limestone, Laminated Serpentine.
	a. *Massive,*		Granite Sienite, Hypenthene Rock, Pyrocrystalline, Limestone, Serpentine Rensselaerite, Octahedral Iron Ore.

The remainder of Part I. is devoted to descriptions of the rocks, commencing with the Pyrocrystalline, and closing with the Pyroplastic, as they are developed in this country. There are many interesting points here, to which we would like to bestow, at least, a passing notice, but must refer the reader to the work itself, with accompanying illustrations. The latter portion of this Part is devoted to the subject of mining, &c., embracing nearly sixty pages, and to this portion we shall confine our further remarks.

The term "mining," in the comprehensive sense here used, is treated of under the following heads.

1. The theory of the formation of those depositories which contain the metals and ores.
2. The structure of those depositories.
3. The changes which the mineral undergoes in depth.
4. The best modes for extracting their metals and ores, including those which have been devised for raising blocks of rock from their beds.
5. The expense attendant upon different kinds of work in mining and quarrying.
6. The value of the products of mining.

In the explanation of the theory of the formation of those depositories which contain ores, there is much which is of interest, of which, however, we can only take a passage or two:—

In the first place, we must look upon all the repositories of the ores and metals as ancient arrangements, by which they are made accessible to us; and that those arrangements are the necessary result of the constitution of the globe. They are by no means to be regarded as accidents, arising from conditions which might have been otherwise. They, too, are general results, confined to no limited scale; and when the forces and plan were determined, upon which to form and fashion

the earth, the results of which I have spoken became an essential part of those causes, and it would have required special instrumentalities to have prevented their operation just as we now see them to have operated. It is for this reason that the formation of repositories for the metals has been controlled by law, by which certain constants may always be looked for. This being the case, the miner has not overlooked the plainest of these results, but is constantly referring to them in his operations with confidence.

It is not necessary that we should connect these laws with the early conditions of the globe in order to understand them; but as facts it is proper that they should be borne in mind. What was that original condition, then, which gave birth to the repositories of the metals? It was that incandescent state of the crust of the globe, of which I have already had occasion to speak. We have no occasion now to inquire what gave birth to that incandescent state; the fact is attested in the phenomena everywhere visible in those portions of the earth's crust which belong to its earliest epoch. The most important effect of this state is the expansion of the crust, or the occupation of a larger space for the time being. But the earth, situated in space, and in a colder medium than itself, has necessarily lost that primitive heat which belonged to its earlier stage of existence. It has cooled, and the most important result which interests mining is the consequent contraction of the cooled part. Contraction has severed the bonds of the continuity of the strata; and those fractures which are the result of the cooling process have been made in comparatively straight lines, or in given directions; or we may regard the causes of fractures simply as subterranean, but due to general conditions, and which must necessarily affect the whole of the cooling envelope.

The fact that fissures may be, and probably are thus formed, is agreeable to all that is known of cooling bodies; and observation which has been directed to those fissures proves, in the general at least, that the fissures are made in lines of bearing quite constant. We may not infer that a mechanical force is applied beneath a stratum, and has erupted those strata in the lines I have spoken, as a previous step in the formation of a vein. A cooling state has given rise to a state of tension, which increases in the direct ratio of the diminution of temperature, which is finally too great to be borne, when the continuity is broken. It is true that a subterranean force is often operative in the mode represented, and by which strata are uplifted and fractured; but it is more consonant to facts to suppose that vein fissures are the result of cooling and the great tension which arises therefrom. As a general rule, the direction which a fissure has taken was in a line of the weakest part of the stratum; but it is easy to conceive that a greater strain may be made upon a stronger part, so as to form a fracture in a line which is apparently along the strongest part of the stratum. In crystalline rocks the planes of lamination must be regarded as weaker planes, and hence it is that a very large proportion of our veins of magnetic iron lie along those planes.

The continuity and persistence of veins is an important subject to the miner, relative to which our author says:—

The expenditure of capital in mining is warranted only where there is a good degree of assurance of the persistence of the vein in a down-

ward direction. While it must be admitted that each particular case should have its own evidence of its continuity, still that evidence is based on general facts and principles. We refer in the first place to the theoretical views we have offered relative to the origin and formation of veins. If that theory is sustained by observation, we are carried a great way towards a satisfactory establishment of a persistence of veins in a downward direction, subject, however, to an interruption, it may be by the operation of local causes, which may have deranged or interrupted the formation of the vein fissure. We may not however, neglect the teaching of facts as they are being furnished by the workings of the oldest mines. To the mining records of other countries, where it has been the business for centuries, we may refer with great sasisfaction. The veins in the mining district of Cornwall, England, have been pursued successfully to the depth of 1,800 feet. It was thought by one class of geologists that they had become less rich at the depth of 600 to 1,200 feet; still they appear to retain their richness to-day, with very little or no abatement, to the depth of nearly 2,000 feet. There are still deeper mines in the districts of the Hartz mountains. Those of Clausthal and Zellerthal have been pursued to the depth of 1,920 feet. Those in the district of Andreasberg, 2,400 feet. In the neighborhood of Freiberg, Saxony, the mines have been worked to the depth of 1,800 feet. The Mexican silver mines have been explored to the depth of 1,500 or 1,600 feet; and the quicksilver mines of Almaden, in Spain, have sustained their richness beyond the depth of 900 feet.

The continuity of veins in the direction of their strike has not been determined with exactitude. Some of the veins of Freiberg are known to extend in length from 12,000 to 24,000 feet. Another is known to extend 36,000. But in the direction of their strike or bearing, there is a great variation in their condition. An auriferous vein of quartz in Maryland, extended only twenty or twenty-four feet in its line of bearing, plunging down at each extremity on a rapid slope; and yet there is little doubt that its depth continuously is as great as any of the auriferous veins of our country, whose line of bearing may be traced for one or two miles. The records of mining furnish many curious as well as interesting facts. Veins are often explored for several years without returning a compensation for the labor and expense incurred, when they are abandoned. After many years of rest, an enterprising miner or capitalist, who is acquainted with the history of its former working, having faith in its value, re-opens the mine, and pursues it with great success. Occurrences of this kind are common in all mining countries. They show, in the first place, what superior skill may accomplish; or, indeed, the subsequent success may have arisen, not so much from superior skill in working, as from having opened a richer part of the mine. All experience in mining proves that the wealth of a mine is variable; some zones are rich, while others are comparatively poor; and this fact is one which should be universally known; it is one which the capitalist should be prepared to meet in any mine, however rich it may be at certain points of exploration. This remark is applicable to veins of lead, copper, silver, and gold, rather than of iron.

The structure of mineral veins, together with the kinds of vein-stone which contain the ores or metals; indications of a good or bad vein judged of by the character of its walls; changes which a vein undergoes near the surface; character of some of the metalliferous veins of this country; limonite or hematitic ores of iron; the gold-bearing rocks of the United States; changes which take place in the auriferous veins of sulphurets of copper and iron in depth, the geological position and relation of gold; comparative richness of the upper and deeper parts of the vein; direction of the auriferous veins; age of the auriferous veins of North Carolina; age of the gold-bearing rocks of the country; distribution and extent of the auriferous rocks east of the Mississippi Valley; of the pyrites and auriferous copper lodes of the Atlantic slope. Such are the titles of many of the subjects subsequently treated of. We pass over all of them to find a place for the annexed important practical consideration:—

ON THE EXPENSES ATTENDING MINING OPERATIONS.

It is scarcely necessary to observe, that the expense of working a mine must depend upon a variety of circumstances, and that the estimate of those expenses which will probably accrue in the working of any given mine, will not be applicable to any other, though the actual amount of metal may be the same in each.

In some cases a work may be prosecuted successfully without the aid of gunpowder; in others the hardness of rock may become excessive at certain depths, and trap dikes may cut off a lode, and hence heavy expenses will be incurred in recovering it. Variability in the herdness of rocks is one of the principal causes of the difference of expense in working mines which belong to the same rock or formation.

Mining operations embrace three kinds of work—shafting, tunnelling, and stoping. Shafts are right-angular cuts into the soil and rock, in which respect they differ from wells. They may be perpendicular or inclined. They are necessarily perpendicular if the lode is vertical; they may be inclined and sink upon an inclined lode to great advantage by employing a proper apparatus for elevating the mineral. But they are more frequently vertical, and sunk at a distance from the outcrop of the vein, so as to intersect it at any given depth which may be desirable. To do this, it is necessary to ascertain in what direction and how much the vein dips, or, in other words, how many feet the vein makes on the dip side in any given number of vertical feet. Thus, a vein may make to the west seven feet horizontally in seventeen vertical feet. It is easy from these facts to calculate how far west from the outcrop the shaft must be sunk to intersect the vein at one hundred or two hundred feet; and so of any other ratio which the vertical plain may bear to the inclined one. It is to be borne in mind, that a very flat vein, as has been already observed, will become steeper as it descends. In very flat veins, therefore, calculations of this kind cannot be relied upon until the vein has reached its maximum dip.

Tunnels or drifts are horizontal cuts into the earth or rocks. They may be designed both for conveying outwards the mineral and for drainage. In that case they are made from the outside, or begin on a slope and are worked inwards, or they may proceed from a shaft to a lode which lies upon one side of it.

Stoping is a term applied to that kind of work by which the vein or its metal is removed from its bed. The most economical way is to stope from beneath upwards. The dead rock is readily disposed of, and placed so as to save the expense of raising it to the surface, and at the same time aid in supporting the walls. The arrangements for stoping should be such that several gangs of miners may be employed in taking down the vein at different levels at the same time. In this case they will be arranged generally in a series of steps, one above another. The cost of a shaft, seven feet by five and sixty feet deep, will not be less than two dollars and a half per foot. If sunk to one hundred feet, it will not be less than four dollars per foot. A windlass will answer for the purpose of raising rock and earth for the first sixty feet, but a whimsey, or whim, is more economical below that depth. The apparatus for raising the rock and water, however, must depend very much upon circumstances. If it is a trial shaft merely, and the vein is of doubtful character, it will not be prudent to incur the expense of a whimsey until after the vein has been proved to a certain extent.

Other expenses are incurred in mining operations before the mineral is ready for smelting besides those which attend the shafting, tunnelling, and stoping. Almost all ores require roasting in order to fit them for stamping. There are, therefore, three operations at least to which the ore must be subjected to fit it for smelting, viz.: assorting, roasting, and stamping or crushing. Passing by the expense of assorting, as this must be the most variable of the three, and cannot be calculated before trial, I proceed to state the expense of roasting and crushing a given amount of iron ore. The roasting is performed in kilns of a simple construction.

One kiln, containing 107 tons of ore, will cost:

1.	For mining, fifty cents per ton	$53.50
2.	Five cords of wood, two dollars per cord	10.00
3.	Teaming one hundred rods	11.50
4.	Labor for filling the kiln	16.00

In the case of iron, there is usually the expense of separating the rock from the ore, which is effected either by magnets or by washing. If the first method is adopted, the expense will amount to

1.	6 men, 2¾ days in crushing, one dollar per day				$16.50
2.	1 engineer, 2¾ days, at $2.00 per day,				
3.	1 assistant, 1	"	1.50	"	
4.	1 machinist,	"	2.50	"	
5.	1 man,	"	1.25	"	
6.	3 men,	"	1.00	"	
7.	1 boy,	"	50	"	40.42
8.	10 cords of wood for engine				20.00
	Total cost,*				$167.92

* Sandford mine, Essex county, New York, Lot 81.

There will also be a loss of ten tons in shrinkage, which will leave only ninety-seven tons of ore after it has passed through the several operations.

As separated ore is now selling, this will be worth..... $253.00
Phosphate of lime saved, worth..... 125.00

The allowance for loss in separating by water is about twelve tons per one hundred.

VALUE OF MINING IN CERTAIN STATES OF THE UNION.

The country is not wanting in a class of persons who decry mining enterprises, and pronounce all attempts for developing its mineral wealth schemes more fraught with expectation than with reasonable prospects of fruition. This class, though wealthy, never invest their means or their money in mines.

There is another class who may be equally unbelieving in the real value of mineral property, yet are ready to plunge into any scheme or project in which there is enough to make a bubble—something which may be inflated into consequence. This class of men have little to lose, and being reckless in representation, are ready to avail themselves of such arts as are necessary to advance their unrighteous schemes.

There is also a third class, who look at matters in a different light. They are satisfied that there are valuable mines, and, moreover, they look at the world as progressing in the arts, and requiring every day for its progress the wealth which is concealed, except to the eye of science, in the bowels of the earth. They see that, for years to come, the increased wealth of the nation is to be drawn from this great store house. They are disposed to invest their money in this kind of property, and to be content with the fair gains of the business. They are aware that it is not without its risks, but to diminish them resort to all the means which may be necessary, in each particular case, to secure a successful result.

The course pursued by the second class has been so notorious as to give character to mining enterprises, and to invest them with a suspicious appearance.

I have not space, however, to follow up this subject. My principal object now is to state very briefly the value of some kinds of the mining property of our country, for the purpose of placing the subject in a prominent light, and thereby show that it is for its interest to foster and encourage all mineral enterprises which are undertaken in a proper spirit.

The time is not far distant when mining will form one of the great industrial pursuits of the country. Every blow of the pick, and every gunpowder blast, will add their farthings to the common wealth of the nation, for every pound of copper or iron is a real addition to its resources.

1. Northern New York. The net proceeds per annum, which may be realized from the ores of iron in Northern New York, will pay the interest, at seven per cent., on $3,000.000.

The mines at Adirondack have just been sold for $500,000, a sum much below their real value. The Sandford ore bed, in Essex county, cannot be estimated at much less than $500,000. At this mine,

from two pits alone, twenty-one and twenty-three thousand two hundred tons of ore per day have been raised, at a cost not exceeding fifty cents per ton; and which, when crushed and separated, yields from five to fifteen tons of phosphate of lime per one hundred tons of ore, which is worth on the ground twenty dollars per ton, and twenty-five to thirty dollars in New York.

There remain the Clintonville and the Saranac iron districts, together with inexhaustible quantities of the specular ore in Jefferson and St. Lawrence counties, and the magnetic ores of the Highlands.

2. Pennsylvania furnishes an amount of iron which may be estimated at $5,000,000 annually.

3. Missouri, from the Pilot Knob and Iron mountain, is capable of furnishing as much iron as any part of the world. Situated in the great valley of the Mississippi, its value can scarcely be overrated.

4. The iron mountains of Lake Superior are equally as rich as Northern New York. There are some, perhaps, who may regard this comparison as unjust to Lake Superior; but it must not be forgotten that one mine, the Sandford Lake mine, is between six and seven hundred feet thick. A square yard of ore weighs four tons.

5. Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina possess inexhaustible supplies of iron ore, which are mostly the hydrous peroxides of iron. The hematites of Vermont, Eastern New York, are very extensive.

6. The brown ores of iron in the south-western counties of North Carolina, and in Eastern Tennessee, are immense.

A mineral so important as iron should be widely distributed, and it appears that, in the United States, every important section is supplied with it. The largest section or formations which are destitute of the ores of iron and of the metals are the Cretaceous and Tertiary, which skirt the Atlantic coast, and which form our great basins and valleys. So, also, the Silurian and Devonian systems are in a great measure destitute of iron ores, with the exception of the argillaceous and oolite ores of iron of the Clinton group.

7. I have already spoken of the value of the lead ores of Wisconsin, Missouri, and Iowa. The highest estimate which I have noticed of the probable productive capacities of the lead region is from one hundred to one hundred and fifty millions of pounds annually, having already reached that of fifty millions under unfavorable circumstances.

8. The production of copper is in its infancy. It is too early to attempt to determine the value of its mines, and yet the Lake Superior copper district has already produced two thousand tons in a single year. The value of the copper which has been produced, equals, at twenty-five cents per pound, $2,700,000. The copper region which ranks next in value is in North Carolina. It has been referred to. The ore is the yellow sulphuret; the country is far better adapted to mining than that of Lake Superior. Indeed, it is of all others the best, whether we consider its climate, its means of sustaining a mining population at a cheap rate, or the production of timber for shafting, tunnelling, fuel, &c. We do not yet know the real extent and value of its copper ores, but we have not the least doubt of the ultimate success of its copper mines.

It is not to be expected, however, that one-quarter of the veins which are now being tested will prove to be mines. Even if one in

ten turn out well, North Carolina will become one of the richest mining districts in the Union.

The resources in copper in Tennessee are also remarkable, and particularly so, as several mines became productive from their first trials. I allude to those of Ducktown.

9. Although gold has been obtained in considerable quantities for half a century, still the mines and deposits have not been worked in a systematic manner. Gold mining operations have been conducted in the loosest manner. Present and immediate gains have been sought for, and hence no permanent works have been erected, except in a very few instances. Within the last two years, more system and more capital have been employed, and a better and more consistent view is now taken of gold mining, and the prospect is becoming daily more favorable to the enterprise. North Carolina is the centre of the gold region, and will rank in value next to California. There are no accurate returns for the amount of gold North Carolina has furnished. Of the gold of California, the estimated production is less than the actual. The Hon. T. Butler King estimated it for 1848–9 at $40,000,000.

10. Our plaster, salt, marble, granite, and freestone, form other large items of mineral wealth with which the United States abound. In the list of mineral property, mineral springs should not be forgotten. They administer to the health of the people.

11. The only mines of quicksilver which are now known in the United States, are situated in Santa Clara, twelve miles from San Jose, in California. It is found in bunches in ferruginous clay, forming in part a hill 1,360 feet above tide. It is associated with broken-down magnesian rocks. The deposit is large, but no accurate returns of the yield of quicksilver have been published. The mine is being worked in a systematic manner.

We have no mines of tin, properly speaking.

I have said nothing of coal. It is almost impossible to measure or weigh in calculation its amount. But President Hitchcock observes truly, that the whole amount, in solid measure, of the coal in the U S., equals at least 3,500,000 square miles.

When it is considered that our country is destined to support its hundreds of millions of souls; that its fleets, its mines, its manufactures, its locomotives, and the domestic firesides, must depend upon its mineral fuel, and when we also estimate the vastness of our resources in the mineral kingdom, we cannot but see that everything necessary for prosperity has been provided with the most liberal hand, and on the most gigantic scale; and has, moreover, been so distributed as to accommodate the many and the most distant parts of the Union. There can be no centralization of products and resources, so as to confer a preponderating influence on a few favored sections of the Union, in the south or in the north. But enterprise and industry may create anywhere a prosperous community by availing itself of those natural mineral and manufacturing resources which are provided throughout the land. Where these do not exist, agriculture comes in to supply the necessary elements of prosperity. Nature had no sectional favors to dispense when she grew the coal plant for nine hundred miles from north to south, and more than a thousand miles from east to west, extending over an area of a million of square miles, and at the same time

distributing her iron and other metals still more widely; to say nothing of the lands and mineral productions upon the Pacific slope.

Although I have not pretended to present a statistical account of our mineral resources, and what is recorded in the foregoing paragraphs is exceedingly meagre and unsatisfactory, still enough has been said to prove that our mining interests are to become one of the great sources of wealth, and that the real additions to the wealth of the nation is hereafter to be largely derived from its mines and quarries.

Part II. will contain a description of the Taconic and Silurian systems, as they are developed in this country.

ARTICLE V.

The Pacific Railway.*

SPEECH OF COL. BENTON, BEFORE THE BOSTON MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, UPON THE PACIFIC RAILWAY AND THE PROPOSED FIVE NEW WESTERN STATES.

Col. Thomas H. Benton delivered the lecture before this Association, at the Tremont Temple, which long before the time appointed for the commencement was crowded to excess. The veteran statesman on making his appearance was received with the most enthusiastic applause. On the front of the platform we observed Abbot Lawrence, Esq., Chief Justice Shaw, Lieut. Governor Plunket, ex-Judge Wilde, Wm. Sturges, Esq., the Mayor, James Savage, Josiah Quincy, Nathan Appleton, and R. C. Winthrop, Esqrs., Henry J. Gardner, the Governor elect, ex-Governor Boutwell, Hon. Henry Wilson, and the Hon. Marshall P. Wilder, with several other gentlemen of wealth and influence.

* Though we have written and published so much concerning the Pacific Railroad that we sometimes fear our readers are weary of the subject, yet we feel compelled by a variety of considerations arising out of the nature and objects of our work, to give place to Col. Benton's views respecting the Central route. We should have been pleased, could we have published his entire speech on this subject recently delivered in Congress, but owing to its great length, we could not do so with propriety.

Col. Benton's description of the five new States cannot fail, we think, to interest every American citizen. We give no opinion as to the correctness of his description of the region between Missouri and California—the picture may possibly be too highly colored—but certainly no man who has not seen the country, has enjoyed better opportunities of obtaining correct information in respect to its topography and capacity of producing subsistence for civilized man.

We take this occasion to say that we deprecate the efforts made in many parts of the country, especially in the west, to depreciate the exertions which have been made by Col. Benton and Col. Fremont, to find and establish the best route for this great national road. Let them persevere, and whatever the result, impartial history will do them justice in the end.—We copy Col. Benton's Boston speech as published in the *American Railway Times*.—SEN. ED.

Mr. Benton, after expressing the pleasure which he felt on visiting Boston, said that he had come on an expedition, one of business, in which his heart and soul was engaged, and had been for a great number of years. The immediate moving cause, the great object which he had at that time on hand, and the form which it was about to assume, he owed to one of our eminent citizens—one who had done enough for his family, and for his country, but might yet perform a crowning act for the age and all posterity. (Applause.) He had come to speak to them upon the only subject which could draw him away from the absolute path of positive and inexorable duty—he had come to speak of the great region beyond the Mississippi river—of the physical geography of the great country which lies between Missouri and California, and of its adaptation to settlement and cultivation, and the construction of the great road which was to fulfil the original idea of Columbus, and carry us to the East Indies by going West.

The idea had prevailed that desolation pervaded all that region, and a part of the Rocky Mountains which had been most traversed justified in some degree the idea. To the North they were desolate; to the South they were arid and sterile; but through the centre they were fertile and inviting to the farmer to settle there. He set out with assuming, and that upon great and studious, and anxious examination of the subject, that the five great States which now stretch half way across our continent in the same latitudes, (Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri,) may be matched by an equal number of States, equally great, between Missouri and California; and that the country is perfectly adapted to the construction of a railroad, and all sorts of roads, traversable in all seasons. There was territory enough for two great States between Missouri and the Rocky Mountains, and every acre was available to the support of man and the domestic animals.

On the North side there was the beautiful river Kansas with its four forks running from west to east—and beautifully parallel to each other, without mountains or ridge between to interrupt their communications, and making, after their junction, near two hundred miles of steamboat navigation before their united waters reach the great Missouri river. All the land drained by these streams constitute the Valley of Kansas—if the term valley can be applied to a region which has but little perceptible depression below the general level of the country. One general description applies to the whole—the soil rich like Egypt, and tempting as Egypt would be, if raised above the slimy flood, waved into gentle undulations, variegated with groves and meadows, sprinkled with springs, coursed by streams, and warmed by a sun which warms without burning, and blessed with the alternation of seasons which give vigor to the mind and body. Egypt thus raised up, and changed, might stand for Kansas; as she is, the only point of comparison is in the soil. For this valley is high and clear, diversified with wood and

prairie, watered by springs and streams, grassy and flowery—its bosom filled with stone for building, coal for fuel, and iron for the home supply of that first of metals.

Some who went there might return with an evil report of the country. That was an old business. (Laughter.) New countries had been reported upon evilly from the time of Moses, from the time that he sent twelve messengers to spy out the promised land. When they returned, ten of them gave an evil report of the country, for which we knew they were punished by a detention in the wilderness for forty years. We know what they said; there was no wood, no water, the people were living in fenced cities, and the inhabitants were of such gigantic stature that the children of Israel would look as nothing by their side.

This was the North side of Kansas. He now turned to the South. This south side includes the whole body of the Arkansas river, from near the Missouri line to its headmost spring in the Rocky mountains—a length of above seven hundred miles on a straight line, and near double that length in the meanders of the stream. This gives to the Territory a second large river, and in the right place, and flowing in the right direction—and parallel to the other, as if its twin sister; and so near together as to be seldom more than a degree, and sometimes not half a degree, from each other, and no mountains or high grounds between them. This, of itself, is a great advantage to the Territory; for the Arkansas, like all rivers in the prairie country, brings fertile borders, and groves of wood and rich grass, and makes an attractive line for settlement and travel.

Fertility was the general characteristic of the whole territory. A vast illimitable plain spread itself to the West, covered in proper season by myriads of buffalos and other game. In the meantime the settler has an attraction—superior with many, and profitable as well as pleasant in itself—to draw him into this vast plain. That is the pastoral pursuit: for this is the bucolic region of our America—now the resort of wild animals—and soon to become the home of the domestic. A short sweet grass, equally nutritious in the green or dried state, (for it dries of itself on the ground), covers the face of the earth, inviting all ruminating animals to take their food on it, without measure and without stint—a great pastoral region, in which the ox will not know his master's crib, nor the ass the hand that feedeth him, but in which the dumb, unconscious beast, without knowing it, will feel the bounty of the Hand which is the giver of all good.

This was the description of the first Kansas—the one which will go half way to the mountains—equal in territorial extent to the first class States, exceeded in productive capacity by none, and soon to become one of the great States of the Union. He would call it East Kansas.

The second State would occupy the remainder of the territory to the base of the Rocky Mountains; and, like the first half, will have the natural division into three parts, and with the same characteristics; but with a reversal of the localities. The Arkansas river side will be by far the most valuable—both intrinsically and in its locality; but the Kansas side will still have its value and attraction.

It took the head waters of the Kansas river at the base of the Rocky Mountains, and all kinds of the pastoral soil was good, for on it was produced the esparcette, a species of clover cultivated in Germany for the fattening of swine, and which was indigenous to these mountains. Fremont thus speaks of this upper part of the Arkansas, as seen by him in his various expeditions, and especially in the one of last winter: "The immediate valley of the upper Arkansas, for about two hundred miles, as you approach the mountains, is continuously well adapted to settlements as well as to roads. Numerous well watered and fertile valleys, broad and level, open up among the mountains. The whole of the intermountain region is abundant in grasses, wood, coal, and fertile soil. The pueblos which exist there prove it to be well adapted to the grains and vegetables common to the latitude, including Indian corn, which ripens well, and to the support of healthy stock, which increases well, and take care of themselves summer and winter." Of the climate and winter season in this elevated region he thus speaks: "The climate is mild and the winters short, the autumn usually having its full length of bright, open weather, without snow, which in winter falls rarely, and passes off quickly. In this belt of country lying along the mountains, the snow falls more rarely, and much more thinly, than in the open plains to the eastward; the storms congregate about the high mountains, and leave the valleys free."

Let us fix our eyes up that river whose name has just come into our geography named by the Spaniards Huerfano. It comes from the due West, drawing its extreme Western waters from the base of the mountain, called the Sierra Blanca, the White Mountain, because it was generally covered with snow, and directly in a line with the setting sun. It presented a tempting ground for cultivation, abundant in soft grasses, lines of timber upon water courses, coal and iron, and the beauty of the landscape which opened there, was described to be surpassing—Pike's Peak rising like Mount Blanc, grand in its elevation, luminous in its eternal white, and which no Packard or Sassure had yet ventured to climb. The scenery as we approached the country between the Spanish Peaks and the Sierra Mohada was picturesque and beautiful. Mountains towered high above us, the summits of some covered with snow in July, while the dense forests of dark pines which clothed their sides, contrasted well with the glittering white at the top, and the light green of the soft grass at their base.

Then comes the large and beautiful valley of San Luis, said to be one of the most fertile in New Mexico. Indeed, fine land was upon the whole route, and the climate is such that stock can live out all the winter upon the grass. On this route there is an abundance of grass and water, so much so that stock will travel and keep fat. Mr. Fremont found the climate mild, and in December he was waiting for snow before making his proposed ascent of the mountains. Then there were several magnificent gates or passes through the mountains; that which Fremont went through, because it was on his direct line, being called the Sandhill pass. The beautiful valley of San Luis was seen through it. Loaded wagons could go through that pass, and he (Col. Benton,) apprehended that a car could go there, (Laughter and applause.) Could a car go there? that was the question. Fremont said that standing at the mouth of that pass, and looking back to the starting point in Missouri, the line would run straight all the way between the parallels of 38 and 39, and there was no intervening obstacle, no elevation of ground, nothing to interrupt the vision throughout the whole length of seven hundred miles. That was corroborated by the fact that the river Arkansas which takes its source there, rolls some 1500 miles before it enters the Mississippi, and never has a fall in its whole distance. That tells the whole story—that it is a vast inclined plain, without inequalities or interruption of any kind.

That would do for a start, he thought, fair start. (Laughter.) It was upwards of one-half the distance of the whole road required to be made; and there was a splendid pass at that South-west corner of West Kansas, while writers in the Edinburg *Review* had put it down that there was an impassible barrier, beyond which human beings could never go. There, near that place, there were no less than eight passes through the mountain, which went through on a beautiful level.

Through the Sandhill Pass, and its continuation (the Sahwatch) to the Coochatope, the ground was so smooth as to present no exception to its level but the natural curvature of the earth. Meeting a man on horseback in this long level of more than 120 miles, (counting the entire valleys of San Luis and the Sahwatch,) is like meeting a ship at sea; you see his head first, then his body, then his horse, and last the ground. The pass itself, as well as the approaches to it, is perfect. Fremont calls it "an open, easy wagon way." Beal and Heap say it was a question whether they had passed the dividing point between the eastern and western waters—which could only beanswered by referring to the water itself. More than forty loaded wagons went through it in the summer of the year 1853, twenty of them guided by Leroux for Capt. Gunnison—and the rest by emigrant families, without guides. But more than that, the buffaloes have travelled it always—those best of topographical engineers, whose instinct never commits mistake, and which in their migrations for pasture, shelter, and salt, never

fail to find the lowest level in the mountains, the shallowest fords in the rivers, the richest grass, the best salt licks, the most permanent water; and always take the shortest and best routes between all these points of attraction. These instinctive explorers traversed this pass, and gave it their name—Coochatope in the Utah language, *Puerto del Cibolos* in the Spanish—which being rendered into English signifies the Gate of the Buffaloes. And their bones and horns, strewing the ground, attest their former numerous presence in this locality, before the fire-arms of modern invention had come to their destruction at such a crowded point of rendezvous.

This instinct of the buffalo was first made known by Baron Alexander Van Humboldt; and Mr. Benton amused the audience by relating the discomfiture of some "school-house engineers" in Virginia, who, surveying for a railroad, were too learned to take the buffalo track at first, but at length were compelled to do so. He concluded by saying that this was enough to show that the Rocky Mountains may be passed without crossing a hill — that loaded wagons may cross it at all seasons of the year. This applies to the Coochatope pass, but there are many others, and all good, and it is curious to detect the Latin language in many of their names, put upon them in the Spanish translations of the original Indian. Thus, we see *porta* in *puerto* (a gate,) constantly recurring, as *Puerto del Cibolos; Puerto del Mosca*, in which latter, besides the *porta* we detect the Latin *musca* (fly,) *Anglice*, the Fly pass from the unusual number of those insects which the Spaniards found in it; *Puerto del Medio*, (medium,) the Middle Gate, &c., &c.

The whole region was a good country for man as well as buffalos, being elevated, delicious and fresh in summer, and mild in the winter. If anything more was wanted to establish the character of this mountain region for fertility of soil and attraction for man; it was found in its character of hunting, and of war ground. Fremont says he found it the most variously and numerously stocked with game, and the most dangerous "war ground," which he had seen in all the extent of the Rocky mountains—both indexes to a fertile country. Western men would understand this, and remember how Kentucky was called the "Bloody Ground," because Indians came there to hunt the numerous game, feeding on the rich grass, product of her rich soil; and to fight for its possession. By this test, and it was one that never fails, this mountain State would be one of eminent fertility.

Then, of the mountains he made a third State, of 60,000 square miles of country, adapted—no, not adapted—delightful for human beings to live in, twice as much so as Switzerland, without the drawback of avalanches and glaciers. It was a place where the hunter would find plenty of employment. Nobody was ever known to get sick there, and all got well who went there sick. [Laughter.]

But in that region of the Rocky Mountains, between the parallels of 38 and 39, there was a succession, a perfect labyrinth, of beautiful valleys of all sizes. One of them was described by Superintendent Beale, and it was only a sample of the rest. He was invited by some Utah Indians to go into their camp. He went there alone, and said the most enchanting prospect spread itself before him.

The valley was small, probably not more than five miles wide by fifteen long, but surrounded on all sides by the boldest mountains, covered to their summits with alternate patches of timber and grass, giving it the appearance of having been regularly laid off in small farms. Through the centre a fine bold stream, four or five feet deep by forty wide, watered the meadow land, and gave the last touch which the valley required to make it the most beautiful he had ever seen. "Hundreds of horses and goats were feeding on the meadows and hillside; and the Indian lodges, with the women and children standing in front of them to look at the approaching stranger, strongly reminded me of old patriarchal times, when flocks and herds made the wealth and happiness of the people, and a hut was as good as a palace. I was conducted to the lodge of the chief—an old and infirm man—who welcomed me kindly, and told me his young men told him that I had given of my small store to them, and (in Scripture phrase,) to 'sit in peace.' In about fifteen minutes a squaw brought in two large wooden platters, containing some very fat deer meat and some boiled corn, to which I did ample justice; and when about to leave, found a large bag of dried meat and a peck of corn put up for me to take to my people."

This was one of the valleys of which there were a vast number. But there was still something more surprising than that. There was something there which his geographical knowledge had not found elsewhere; a peculiar kind of mountain called by the hunters "round mountains." They had rich sides, covered with grass, often sweeping the horses to the saddle-girths; their tops were level, and diversified with the growth of the prairie. They were filled with antelopes and deers, and looked like parks of noblemen, dressed up with all the art and skill of a luxurious land. But it did not stop there. It did not stop with the fine soil, those groves of timber, those prairies on the tops of the mountains, but there was something which Switzerland could not show—miniature lakes, deep, limpid and cool: in short, it was a most enchanting place for human beings to live in. Fremont found in the month of January the ground in the valleys free of snow, and the horses of the Indians feeding and in good order, which he was able to testify not only by view, but by eating one of them, which he said he found to be as fat as a buffalo. [Laughter and applause.

Col. Benton then interested the audience by a narration of some of Fremont's romantic adventures, with the view of showing the

friendliness of the Utah Indians, ascribing their attacks upon travellers to injuries they received. To show the ease with which the country can be traversed, Messrs. Beale and Heap reached the east fork of the Great Colorado of the West, and in crossing it, they lost, by accident of an overturned canoe, their supply of ammunitions, both for the gun and the mouth, and were forced to send back to the nearest settlement for a further supply. That nearest settlement was Taos, in New Mexico, distant three hundred and thirty miles; and that distance to be made upon mules, finding their own food, which had already travelled, on the same condition, one thousand miles from the frontier of Missouri; and these mules, [thus already travelled long and hard, without other food than the grass afforded,] now made the double distance at the rate of forty miles a day—still finding their own food; and, on the return, bringing packs on the backs. This performance must stand for a proof that a whole mountain region between the Upper Colorado and the valley of the Upper Del Norte is well adapted to travelling, and that in a state of nature, it is also well supplied with nutritous grass; and this clears us of the Rocky Mountains, from which to the Little Salt Lake it is all an open, practicable way—not limited to a track, but teaverseable on any line. Loaded wagons travel it in a state of nature. Then that was the third State, the Switzerland of the West.

The valley of the Upper Colorado would furnish the territory for the fourth State — 150 miles wide from the western base of the Rocky Mountains to the eastern base of the Wahsatch and Anteria ranges — and 300 or 400 in length up and down the river. The face of the country was high and rolling, with alternations woodland and prairie; and open to roads and settlement in any direction.

This would be the fourth State—equal in extent to any, inferior in soil, superior in wood and water, softer in climate, better in due alternations of woodland and prairie; and being part of Utah Territory, it is now under the dominion of law and government, and open to immediate settlement; which in fact is now going on.

The fifth State would consist of the remainder of the Utah Territory, beginning at the eastern base of the Wahsatch and Anteria ranges, and extending 300 miles to the California line — upon whatever breath might be desired. It would include, [towards its eastern border,] the Little Salt Lake. It would be a magnificent State; its eastern limit; there the rim of the Great Basin, would embrace the broad expanse of the Wahsatch and Anterria ranges, where nature has crowded and accumulated into an hundred miles square, as into a vast magazine, a profusion of her most valuable gifts to man. Soil, water, grass, wood, timber, rock salt, coal, stone; a due alternation of mountain and valley—the former cut into blocks, white on the top with snow, dark on the sides with forests, and their bosoms filled with ores; the valleys green with

grass, fresh with cool water, opening into each other by narrow level gaps, or defiles; the climate so soft that animals live out all the winter, and February [fo frosty and frozen with us,] the usual month there for starting the plough.

At the actual southern extremity were the Mormon settlements, consisting of the three enclosed towns of Parowan, Paragoona and Cedar City, near to which the proposed line passed; a coal mine had been opened for about eighty yards, and iron works already established. Iron here occurs in extraordinary masses, in some parts accumulated into mountains, which come out in crests of solid iron, thirty feet thick and a hundred yards long.

Fremont brought home specimens of this coal and iron, of which Professor Baird, of the Smithsonian Institute, had made an analysis, and discovered 70 per cent. of iron in the ore, whilst the coal was bituminous, like that of Pennsylvania.

The Mormon were pretty towns, built to a pattern, each a square, the sides formed by lines of adobe houses, all fronting inwards, with flower and kitchen gardens in front and a large common field in the rear crowded with growing grain—and all watered, both fields and gardens, and the front and rear of every house, with clear, cool streams, brought down from the mountain sides, and from under a seeming conopy of snow. Grist and saw mills at work; forges smelting the iron ore; colliers digging the coal; blacksmiths hammer the red hot iron into farming implements, or shoes for the horses, assisted by dexterous Indian boys; cattle roaming in rich pastures; people quarrying, and the cattle licking the rock salt. Emigrants obtain supplies here—beef and flour at moderate prices—and it was here that Fremont was refitted after his seventy days of living upon his mules which died from exhaustion. The number and beauty of these valleys and fertile mountains, seen by Beale and Heap in exuberance, the ripe, rich dress of midsummer, excite their wonder, and call forth enchanting descriptions. It is impossible to read their descriptions without being reminded of Central Persia, and of that valley of Shiraz, celebrated as incomparable by the poets, but matched and surpassed in the recesses of the Wahsatch and the Anterria.

Col. Benton then spoke strongly in advocacy of the proposed railroad. Fremont believed in its practicability, and in 1848–49, set out, taking the winter for his time, the west for his course, a straight line his object, the mouth of the Kansas for his point of departure, St. Louis and San Francisco the points to be connected. The parallels of 38 and 39 covered his course, and between these he continued to move west until he reached the Little Salt Lake, within three hundred miles of the California line. After that, upon a slight deflection to the south, between the parallels 37 and 38, until he entered California. This may be called a straight line; and so fulfils a primary condition of every kind of road, and especially of a railroad. Smoothness of surface, or freedom from ab-

rupt inequalities in the ground, was the next consideration, and here the reality exceeded the expectation, and even hopes, and challenges incredulity.

And this completed all that was necessary to be shown in favor of the smoothness of the way—its equality of surface throughout the whole line—although it attains a great elevation, and lands you in California, in the rich and unsettled valley of San Joaquin, proximate to the southern end of the gold mines. Not a tunnel to be made, a mountain to be climbed, hill to be crossed, a swamp to be seen, or desert, or moveable sand to be encountered, in the whole distance: so that this line for a road, the longest and straightest in the world, is also over the smoothest and most equal surface. For, although a great elevation is attained, it is on a long line, and gradually and imperceptibly—the mere rise of an inclined plane.

He wished to make the project known to the solid, the enterprising men of Boston; and he undertook to say, reasoning from cause to effect, that that road would be made, not by authority of Congress, but by private enterprise, by private means, upon the same principle on which nearly 20,000 miles of railroads had already been made in this country. There was a charter from God and nature for the road, and that charter would be used. [Applause.] The road would draw to those regions the largest emigration, and produce the most rapid extension of the human race which the ages of man had ever beheld. What were the difficulties in the way? It was nearly half built now, and the railways from this city and almost every part of the Union, would have access to it by way of Cincinnati and St. Louis. See all the railroads opening out like an extended fan, but it was a fan without a handle to it, and that handle this Pacific Railroad would supply. He had come here to get some assistance towards putting that handle to it —not to get a subscription of money. If he did he should be met with a story of hard times. [A laugh.] He did not want their money, but their names, so as to commend the scheme to the confidence of the country. How? — their names endorsed upon a note? No. Upon the foot of a note? No.

How then? To put in a Bill which Congress could pass without constitutional scruples, and by which the names of those who were put therein, should be allowed a right of way in the public lands a mile wide, through Kansas and Utah, to open this road: and that they should have a year to decide whether they would accept the grant or not. He urged upon them not to depend upon Congress doing the work, but upon themselves, upon the American population, and said that he relied especially upon the men along this Atlantic seaboard who had already shown so much enterprise, so much public spirit. Boston was the first to begin the East India trade. Here was an opportunity of making a new road to India

across our own dominions. What a spectacle it would be to exhibit to the world!

We might then get that Oriental commerce, which had been fought for, for thousands of years by Jew and Gentile before they were Christians—fought for by Christians from the moment they existed—not only Christians against Christians, but one section with the Saracen as his ally. And to get what portion of that trade? That which was carried over frightful deserts, over difficult rivers, and occupying hundreds of days in transportation over the wilderness, on the backs of camels, through many nations, all savage and considering the merchant as their lawful prey. For such commerce as that, carried on in that way, nations had fought, Turk and Venetian side by side against the Portuguese, and by it cities like those of Venice and Genoa had raised themselves to wealth and to the power of empires.

Now when little rivulets of that commerce were fought for in that style, and had that effect upon the power and wealth of mere cities, were we not induced to verify the remark of the elder Pliny, in respect to the commercial spirit of republics, by taking that commerce to ourselves? He appealed to the merchants of Boston for support of the scheme, to those who knew how to aggrandize their country by enriching themselves. We should realize the idea of Columbus in a different idea from what he conceived it. Thanks to the progress of the mechanical arts, we now had locomotives flying across the country with the velocity of a carrier pigeon, and the telegraph wires conveying a message between kingdoms in the twinkling of an eye. Should we not use those advantages? We should—we would.

We must see revived in our America from the Mississippi to the Pacific those cities which were once the pride and wonder of the world, the Tyres, Sidons, Palmyras and Baalbecs, all becoming rich and powerful by Eastern commerce, and sinking down into barbarism when they lost it—revived and to flourish as much as the richness of the regions he had pointed out surpassed those deserts where they were situated, and as much as the advancement of civilization and the improvement of the arts puts the race of to-day ahead of the Asiatic race of 2000 or 3000 years ago. We must have the railroad, and to have it we had but to will.

If the solid men of Boston, some two dozen, would take the lead, other maritime cities would join them, every railroad company would find itself interested in it, every express company, every telegraph company, every man would find his own interest promoted by the construction of the road, which would put us in close connection with golden California, and open a door to Asiatic commerce—one end pointing to Canton and Jeddo, and the other to London and Paris. What a consummation to be accomplished by our America, all lying at her feet for acceptance!

Col. Benton resumed his seat amid enthusiastic applause.

The following remarks made by Col. Benton in the House of Representatives, on the 16th January, 1855, indicate his present views touching the means and method of constructing the Pacific railroad.

The House being in the Committee of the Whole on the state of the Union, on the Pacific railroad bill—

Mr. BENTON said :

Mr. Chairman: I have desired for some time past to change the plan of making this road —to withdraw it from legislative authority, where political and sectional interests must always interpose —and leave it to a company of business men, where business considerations could only prevail ; for this is a case in which private interest would go hand in hand, that which would be best for one being best for the other ; and so insuring the selection of a route which would be most national, because most suitable to the greatest number. With this view I have turned my attention to private enterprise, and have found solid men who are willing to take the preliminary steps now, preparatory to the final assumption of the work—Congress granting the necessary authority, and conferring the right of way through its territories, one mile wide on each side of the road. No military protection—no alternate sections—no gift of money—no aid but the right of way and payment for transportation of mails, troops, and munitions according to a plan not yet matured. Telegraphic lines to be established or permitted, and transportation to begin before the road is finished, by using stage coaches for the remainder, according to a plan which may be agreed upon. No exclusive privilege, except in two degrees on each side of the road, to keep off competition, leaving all the rest of the country open to other roads. The substitute bill which I propose contains the names of some of these citizens, and with whom other solid men will deem it a privilege to be associated—not that all will be expected to be millionaires, but only good for what they promise; for it is not intended that straw-men or windmen shall get control of this undertaking. The consent of those in the bill will be necessary to the admission of every new associate; but after the act shall be accepted, books of subscription are to be opened in every State of the Union, and the stock divided into convenient shares, to suit short as well as long purses.

Congress has ordered surveys of routes: they are not ready: but that is no impediment to the adoption of my substitute, which fixes no route; but leaves it to the company to choose their own: and no company, using their own money will act upon any survey but their own. Such a company will look before it leaps: and if it did not, it would not leap long. It will send out its own surveyors—practical engineers and road-makers—to report upon every mile of the way, and under every aspect of cost and feasibility. To such a company the Government surveys are not wanted, even if

ready, and made properly, in winter as well as summer: and, in fact, they were not intended for a company, but for Congress—intended to enable Congress to fix the route itself—a consummation which is now found impossible to attain. I would have preferred that Congress should have made the road, as a national work, on a scale commensurate to its grandeur, and let out the use of it to companies, who would fetch and carry on the best terms for the people and the Government. But that hope has vanished, and the organization of Kansas having opened up the country to settlement, and placed it under law, and carried it into conjunction with Utah and New Mexico, a private company has become the resource and the preference. I embrace it as such, utterly scouting all plans for making private roads at national expense—of paying for the use of roads built with our land and money—of bargaining with corporatoins or individuals for the use of what we give them—a species of bargaining in which my observation informs me that the Government gets about as badly cheated as Moses Primrose was when he sold the colt which had been in the family nine years; and as much worse as his father was when he undertook to help out the matter by selling Blackberry. I presume every member knows how that was: for I would be sorry to suppose that any one, possessed of the English language, had lived to man's estate without enjoying the luxury of reading the Vicar of Wakefield. For my part, I have been reading it since I was five years old, and with augmented enjoyment every time and especially since they have got to putting pictures in it, and above all that picture of Moses selling the colt for a gross of green spectacles with silver rims and shagreen cases: a picture for which the United States sit every time Congress undertakes to make a bargain for the public. I eschew all such bargains, and all private roads made at public expense; but am willing to have as many as any one pleases upon the same terms as contained in my substitute—and there will be room for several such; but I do not think another will be built in our day.

I prefer the Central route: the administration eschews that route, and lays out its strength in favor of frontier routes, by Canada and Mexico. It sent a surveying party on the Central, but only to go a part of the way, and turn round—leaving the essential section between the Little Salt Lake and the valley of the San Joaquin unexamined. Mr. Fremont supplied that omission last winter, exploring a new and direct route between those points, and through the Sierra Nevada—completing all that was wanting in that quarter. This new route cut off the elbow to the southwest made by the old Los Angelos trail, avoided the desert which it crossed, and left far to the south those excitable sand fields, in which no number of horses can leave a track—in which what is a hillock to-day is a hole in the ground to-morrow—where, under a gentle breeze the sands creep like an army of insects—where the

traveler who lies down to sleep during the night in a light wind, must rise and shake himself often to avoid being buried in the sand: and where, during a high wind, the air is filled with a driving tempest of silicious particles, very cutting to the skin and eyes, very suffocating to the throat, very dangerous to men who are not tall and swift—where men and animals fly for their lives when they feel the wind rising, and where this administration would carry the road. Fremont's new discovery avoided all that; but without conciliating our administration. Frontier and foreign routes monopolize their affection, and engross their cares, involving, in my opinion, at least in one instance, a misapplication of the appropriation for the survey of routes. I allude to the Pugets Sound route, skirting the British line all the way, going where nobody travels, where nobody lives, and where nobody can now want a road except the British fur company, and a certain chartered company, of which Mr. Robert J. Walker and Mr. James Duane Doty are the heads; and which route the debates in Congress show was not within the contemplation of the law when the appropriation was made.

Article VI.

Meteorological Observations–The Seasons, Weather, &c.

By Revd. J. M. Peck.*

Dry weather, an unfavorable season, short crops, and fears of starvation, have been the general complaint over one half of the States east of the Mississippi, from the first of July, during the past year. And Missouri, and the Southern part of Iowa, have shared in the same calamity.

The extraordinary high prices of most articles of food, and the sufferings of the poor and improvident in the large cities, during an unusual and sudden financial pressure, are circumstances quite unusual.

In all former depressions of trade and financial embarrassment in this country, within our recollection, food has been plenty, and at low rates, though the want of employment may have kept thou-

* It must ever be a source of regret to the natural philosopher and historian that accurate and continuous meteorological observations were not made and preserved in all the States of this Union, from the date of their earliest settlement. Such facts would in time show to what extent the arts of civilization are calculated to affect the normal meteorological condition of countries, and ameliorate their climate. We sincerely thank the author of the following article for the opportunity of publishing the result of his observations, and most respectfully invite all others who may have made and preserved similar observations in the valley of the Mississippi, to furnish us with their facts for publication.—Sen. Ed.

sands on the verge of suffering. The failure of the potatoe crop throughout the region of drought, at the retail price now in all our markets at $2 per bushel, is an illustration of the position we take:

That the weather and seasons have great influence on the means of human subsistence.

It would be interesting to all classes, and profitable to all pursuits, if we could have a complete registry of the weather and seasons in this valley for the last forty or fifty years; accompanied with meteorological tables, kept at important points. We know not the sources from whence such information can now be obtained; at least in sufficient extent, to constitute a basis for practical purposes. At the military posts, thirty years since, the surgeons of the army, by direction of Joseph Lovell, *M. D.*, Surgeon General of the U. S. Army, took meteorological observations, kept registers, and made reports to the head of the Department, for several years. Whether the practice has been kept up, we know not, but it certainly ought to have been for the common interests of humanity.

We suggest that those who have any journal of the weather, its changes, and the effects on vegetation and crops, with barometrical and thermometricel observations duly registered, report the same, with all other facts in their possession, pertaining to the subject, through the *Western Journal.* By collecting the scattering fragments that have been preserved, an approximation can be made towards a more complete history of the subject.

There are several fallacious notions, some of them grossly superstitious, prevailing even amongst persons of information and good sense, about the weather and causes of change. The one that has obtained the most extensive influence over the human mind, is the supposed influence of the moon on the atmosphere, and the changes of weather. Even the distinguished astronomer, M. Arago, wrote an able article on this subject, in 1833; and the conclusion of his statements would seem to confirm the theory.

A single *fact*, that may be known by any one who will examine tables of the weather, kept in different countries, and in the same country, at the same time, will overthrow all such speculations, and destroy the popular theory. Since the deluge of Noah, *storms of all kinds, whether of rain, snow, hail, sleet or wind, are local, and never extend but a few hundred miles from a centre.* Many severe storms and continuous rains do not extend three hundred miles.

It is rare indeed, and we question if the fact has been otherwise since the settlement of the United States, that the extremes of wet and drought do not exist at the same time and under the influence of the same moon, within our own country. The season of 1844 is a full illustration of this fact. It was the period of the great flood in the Missouri and Mississippi. The bottom land in these rivers was submerged from bluff to bluff, and not an ear of corn

was produced on the river bottoms from the upper settlements of Missouri to Vicksburg, *except in the city of Cairo*, at the point of junction of the Ohio and Mississippi. This spot was defended, and the water kept out, by the old levee. We saw a field of corn there the first week in October, that from a cursory examination, we supposed would yield fifteen barrels, or seventy-five bushels to the acre.

From the middle of May to the 20th July, that season, the rains were so excessive in this part of the Mississippi valley; not only near the streams, but over the whole district, that in many instances on the uplands and prairies of Illinois and Missouri, the farmers could not work their cornfields, and the grass and weeds destroyed the crop.

At the time of this flood, and these excessive rains, a severe drought prevailed along the border of the Atlantic coast, from the Potomac to the Lake country and St. Lawrence. The farmers suffered severely, and the crops were cut short. The moon was the same within one hour at both localities.

On the 14th and 15th of February, 1846, a severe snow storm prevailed on the Antlantic coast, from Savannah to Labrador. At Philadelphia, where the writer was, it commenced on Saturday, the 14th, at half past one o'clock, P. M., and continued, without intermission, until the 15th at four o'clock, P. M., when the wind died away, and the storm subsided. The depth in that vicinity, when it first fell in places secure from the wind, was from 18 to 20 inches. In Maine, and towards Nova Scotia, it fell to the depth of three feet or more. Its outer verge east was noticed in the Atlantic ocean about 1000 miles from the American coast. At Cincinnati, it was a light snow of some four or five inches, with very little wind. The last remains of this snow westward, was in the Wabash valley. At St. Louis the weather was partially clear and pleasant. Eight days after, while this snow was melting away rapidly under the influence of the sun in Philadelphia, there was a snow storm in this vicinity that left its mantle several inches deep.

Many of our readers may recollect this great storm of February 15th, from some peculiar attendant circumstances. It was at the period of the adjustment of the Oregon boundary question with the British Government. Who does not recollect the slang of certain political papers of "54° 40′ or fight?"—which in a brief period and quiet manner cooled down to the forty-ninth degree and peace.

There was great excitement, and even alarm amongst our commercial men and others in the Atlantic cities, lest the "vexed question" should involve us in war. The journalists, merchants and bankers had established lines of expresses reaching from Philadelphia to Halifax, to bring the earliest intelligence of the monthly steamships of the wintry season. Some time in January, the swift-sailing barque Romer, a revenue cutter, left the port of New

York, in a sudden and mysterious way, manned by experienced pilots and mariners. Not a journalist could divine its object or destination. Curiosity was excited to the utmost pitch;—speculation was on tip-toe; gazing at this small craft that without rule or reason had plunged into the Atlantic ocean in the midst of a stormy winter, to go no one knew where or for what purpose.

In reference to the Oregon question, the British government had fixed its position on Columbia river; and so had the minister at Washington been instructed. "Young America" had declared for "fifty-four, forty, or fight." After the alarm was over, it became known that the *Romer* had been chartered by the British minister, with the approbation of our government, to convey dispatches to London and obtain a modification of his instructions to retire from the Columbia river to the forty-ninth degree, by the return of the February steamer, with authority to settle the dispute on that basis. The Romer reached the west coast of Ireland in less time than a sailing vessel had ever before made the passage; the bearer of dispatches, by the most rapid mode of traveling, reached London; the steamship at Liverpool was telegraphed to wait; the basis of the treaty was approved, the dispatches were returned by the steam ship, which entered the port of Halifax in the midst of the terrific snowstorm already noticed. It was with the utmost difficulty and the delay of several days that the expresses reached New York and Philadelphia, bearing the intelligence brought by the steamer. These incidents may bring to recollection this storm; the most severe that had been in the Atlantic States for thirty years.

It is natural and quite common, when no one keeps an accurate journal of the facts, to imagine the latest changes of the weather to be uncommon. The memories of persons, especially those who have passed the grand climacteric of human life, are not to be trusted about weather, and least of all is bodily sensation a correct criterion of heat and cold.

"This is the coldest winter I ever felt;" — "this is the hottest summer;"—"this is the worst drought ever known;"—"this is the most sickly season ever endured;"—and a hundred other assertions are made by persons on every apparent departure from ordinary seasons. When in mere boyhood, which goes backward over half a century, the writer noticed the common talk of aged persons,—"That the world was growing more wicked;"—"the people more dishonest;"—"the winters were colder;"—"the summers were shorter;"—and to employ a genuine Irish illustration, the wheels of progress were moving backwards.

All these notions seemed matters of reality to those who uttered them, and the same impressions have existed in every past generation, and the same opinions will be expressed by the boys and girls who live to be old people;—and their descendants will affirm the same things when their turn comes.

We place no dependence on an old man's memory about the weather and seasons, and hence we do not trust our own. Brief and imperfect memoranda were kept at the time referred to, so far as the writer testifies as to his own knowledge, and other facts given are derived from sources entitled to the highest credit.

The fullest and most accurate series of meteorological observations ever kept by one man in the United States, until recently, were by the late Dr. Holyoke, of Salem, Mass. He commenced his journal in 1786, made his observations daily with great care, and continued his daily entries to the close of 1828 ; and died on the 31st of March, 1829, in the *one hundred and first* year of his age.

Abstracts from this journal were published ih the second, fourth, and fifth volumes of the "Transactions of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences." The "General Results" of forty-three years (from 1786 to 1828,) giving the mean of each series, of seven parts, may be found in the American Almanac for 1834.

The hottest years in that locality were 1793, 1825, and 1828, in which the mean range from 50, 96 to 51, 35 (degrees and hundreths). The coldest year during the whole period was 1812 ;—mean 44,28. The greatest heat within the period was 101 degrees, June 23, 1816;—the same on July 21, 1825. The greatest cold was January 25, 1821, when the mercury in the thermometer (*Fah.*) sunk to 13 degrees below zero. The local position of Salem, on a bay of the Atlantic ocean, was favorable to a medium temperature. On the mountain ranges of New Hampshire and Massachusetts, the thermometer in the coldest mornings before sun-rise, has sunk to 30 degrees below zero.

Dr. S. P. Hildreth, of Marietta, Ohio, has kept a journal of meteorological observations for a longer period [we think] than any other individual in this valley. Abstracts have been given from time to time in Silliman's "Journal of Sciences and the Arts." It may be the late Dr. Daniel Drake, of Cincinnati, a gentleman of long and careful observation on every subject connected with disease and climate in this valley, has left valuable tables of longer continuance.

Our own "Notes" show that the season of 1816 was remarkable for coldness, drought and backwardness of vegetation on the eastern slope of the Alleghanies. How the region about St. Lous was affected, we have no means of knowing. In all the Atlantic States north of Baltimore, corn, wheat, rye, oats and hay were cut short. In the vallies among the mountains of northern Pennsylvania and through the northern half of New York, corn was either killed or partially cut off by untimely frosts, which were severe enough to kill tender vegetables every month through the summer. In less exposed situations the effects were slight. Very little rain fell during the summer months. In the middle States a series of rain

storms prevailed eight days in succession, about the second week in September.

From December 1st to January 12th, 1817, the weather was singularly mild and pleasant; the atmosphere was hazy, or rather smoky; very little rain fell, and only light frosts.

The winter set in on the 12th of January with unusual severity; the frost penetrated the earth three feet and six inches beneath the paved streets of Philadelphia, and burst the water pipes in several streets; and the Delaware river froze over at Marcus Hook; an event that had not occurred since the "hard winter" of 1780. The mean temperature of January, 1817, at St. Louis, was 26°.

The spring of 1817 opened late, but the summer proved a very fruitful season in the east. In May, there was a severe drought in the Atlantic border north of the Potomac, and the cut-worm destroyed the young corn to an unusual extent. Much rain fell in June; July was variable and pleasant. On the 9th and 10th of August, there was a remarkable storm of rain through Pennsylvania and Maryland, and the streams rose to an unusual height. The Codorus which passes through Little York, in Pennsylvania, was dammed up by floating bridges and dilapidated mills, which gave way suddenly, and the flood swept through the borough of York, destroyed about fifty houses and stores, and drowned eleven persons.

Throughout the Mississippi valley the autumnal months were rainy, and the Ohio and its tributaries rose to flood stage, and the traveling was horrible. In this vicinity the rains commenced about the latter part of October, and did not raise the upper rivers. If any of our readers came to this region that season, they will retain a vivid recollection of their journeying across the Illinois territory. There were two principal trails; one from Shawneetown, or from Ford's Ferry, twelve miles below, on the old trace to Kaskaskia; the other from Vincennes to St. Louis. A branch trace struck off from the old Kaskaskia route, below the Muddy river, to the right, and passed through the present counties of Jefferson, Perry and Washington to the Turkey Hill settlement and Belleville. An occasional log cabin, a corn field and "truckpatch" was found on this route. Four prongs of the Big Muddy, the Little Muddy, and Big and Little Beaucoup, had to be passed without bridges or ferries, and frequently by swimming.

On the 9th of November, the Ohio river at Shawneetown was over its banks, half the town site was under water. Near the Bluffs the water was from four to six feet deep. The corn in Illinois and Missouri did not ripen well that season, and the crop was an indifferent one. The winter of 1817-18 was unusually severe; snow lay on the ground in the county of St. Louis from 10 to 15 inches deep, for several weeks. The last week in February, the winter broke, the ground in the prairies thawed, and rains fell. In the forest, snow and ice remained, and the ground beneath was frozen on the last day of February. The Missouri river was crossed on the ice March 2d. We made an excursion into the country that day about

fourteen miles from St. Louis, and two miles N. E. from Bridgeton, where these observations were made. In the Osage and Gasconade regions, that winter, snow lay on the ground for several weeks, from eighteen inches to two feet deep. This fact was narrated by a Mr. Richardson, who had removed his family into the wilderness between the Gasconade and the Osage rivers, the preceding autumn, and put up a small cabin, expecting to supply his family with provisions by hunting. Storm after storm of snow came, and finally a rain which made a crust, and he and his family came near starvation before he could find relief by hunting. About the middle of January, the thermometer in St. Louis before sun-rise was 14 degrees below zero.

The late Rev. Salmon Giddings made a series of observations on the thermometer [*Fahrenheit*] in St. Louis, during the years 1817, '18 and '19. His residence was on the spot where Wyman's Hall now stands; the blocks around were entirely open; the instrument hung in the air on the north side of the house.

The following results were given by Dr. Lewis C. Beck, in his "Gazetteer of the States of Illinois and Missouri,"* pp. 198, 199.

Mean temperature for 1817 ..... 55 deg. 52 hun.
Mean temperature from the beginning of May,
1818, to the end of April, 1810..... 56 98
Mean temperature for 1820..... 56 18

The mean of these results is about fifty-six degrees and a quarter, which probably was the *standard temperature* of St. Louis, when that portion of the city west of Third street was so nearly open as to have the atmosphere and temperature of the surrounding country.

The *mean temperature* of each month during the above years was given as follows—

January.....	30 deg.	62 h.	July.....	78 deg.	66 h.
February.....	38	65	August	72	78
March.....	43	13	September.....	70	10
April.....	58	47	October.....	59	00
May.....	62	66	November	53	13
June	74	47	December	34	33

The following statement shows the *annual range* of the thermom.:

1817, lowest 5 deg. below 0—highest above 0, 101, Range 96
1818–19, " 8 " above 0— " " 0, 96, " 88
1820, " 6 " below 0— " " 0, 100, " 94

The average *monthly range* during these years is as follows—

January,	from	3	degrees to	59	degrees.	Range	56
February,	"	6	"	74	"	"	68
March,	"	16	"	73	"	"	57
April,	"	32	"	83	"	"	51

* This valuable and now scarce work, the first ever prepared for these States, was gotten up by the author with great care, and published in Albany, N. Y., in 1823, octavo, 352 p.p. Dr. Beck was at St. Louis, and explored the country in 1820—21.

May,	from	43	degrees to	89	degrees.	Range	46
June,	"	52	"	94	"	"	42
July,	"	61	"	99	"	"	38
August,	"	59	"	96	"	"	37
September,	"	40	"	92	"	"	52
Otober,	"	24	"	81	"	"	57
November,	"	37	"	78	"	"	41
December,	"	19	"	63	"	"	44

The mean temperature of the different seasons in those years were as follows:

Winter, 34 deg. 53 hdths—Spring, 54.74—Summer, 75.34—Autumn, 60.77.

H. M. Breckenridge, Esq., made a tour of observation in Missouri, in 1810 and 1811, and wrote "Sketches," in the Missouri Gazette [now Republican], which subsequently were published in a volume; now to be found only in some public and private libraries. He writes, 1811, "The winters are usually more mild than in the same latitudes east of the Alleghany mountains, but there are frequently several days in succession of weather as cold as in Canada. Last January, after several weeks of delightful weather, when the warmth was even disagreeable, the thermometer standing at 78 degrees, a change took place, and so sudden, that in four days it fell to ten degrees below 0. This winter was also remarkable for a circumstance which the oldest inhabitant does not recollect to have ever witnessed; the Mississippi closed over twice, whereas it most usually remains open during winter."

Dr. Beck says, "The mean temperature of January, 1817, was 26 degrees; about equal to the same month in New York" [City, we suppose, in which the temperature in winter is always modified several degrees from that of the adjacent country]. "The winter of 1818–'19 was very mild, and exhibited a singular contrast with the two or three preceding. The mean temperature of January was 39 degrees, and the weather continued mild during the month of February, and the thermometer on some days rose to 72°.

The Mississippi remained open, at St. Louis, during the whole season. During the winter of 1819-'20, the Mississippi closed about the 20th of December, and remained closed until the 10th of February. The mean temperature of January was 27 deg., varying very little from that of the same month in 1817. On two occasions, the mercury fell to six degrees below 0. — From ten to twelve inches of snow fell during the month, and continued on the ground from three to four weeks. The winter of 1820–'21 differed but little from the last. The Mississippi continued closed [at St. Louis] for six or seven weeks, and the earth was covered with snow from six to twelve inches during the months of January and February.

The winter of 1821–'22 was less severe than the two former.—About the first of December the cold commenced. On the 22d,

the Mississippi closed opposite St. Louis. During the remainder of the month the weather was clear and pleasant, and the thermometer rose frequently to 60 degrees. On the 4th of January, the mercury fell to 4 degrees below 0. After this the weather became mild, and continued so during the month." On the 22 January, the ice broke, and the river was open, having been closed thirty-one days.

Concerning the temperature of the summers at that period, our information is deficient. By the register kept by the Rev. Mr. Giddings, we learn that on the 30th of July, 1817, the mercury rose to 101 degrees in the shade; and on the 19th of August the same year, it rose to 99 degrees. In June and July, 1818, the thermometer frequently indicated 96 degrees, but did not rise higher that season. In June, July and August, 1820, it frequently rose to 96 degrees, and once in July to 100 degrees. The summer of 1820 was the hottest and driest within the recollection of the old inhabitants at that time.

The summer and autumnal months of 1819, 1820, and 1821, were the most sickly seasons [excepting the cholera] we have ever witnessed in this country. Immigrants in unusual numbers had spread over the country under circumstances peculiarly unfavorable to health. They lived in new and open cabins, usually made of green timber, with loose floors of split slabs called *puncheons*. They frequently used the stagnant water of creeks and ponds, with a luxuriant, wild vegetation around them, and all the other annoyances on the settlement of a new, unbroken country. Their horses and cattle fed on the range, and farmers would be drenched in the dew on the tall grass, and in getting up their teams, and then plow their corn under the influence of a burning sun. Under such circumstances, it need not be thought strange that the fevers were far more malignant, and sickness more general than in later years. The same districts where autumnal fevers then never failed, there is as little sickness, and tables of mortality are as encouraging to health and longivity, as in the most favored positions in the same parallels of latitude in the older States.

During the summer and autumn of 1820, the fevers that prevailed were unusually rapid, malignant and fatal. The heat of the sun, and the severe drought of that summer, exceeded much the season of 1854. The occasional light showers of rain, and the freshness of the cultivated land, produced good crops of corn, but the period of heat and drought was far more severe on animal nature. For many days in succession not a cloud came over the sun to shield us from its burning influence. The fevers that prevailed assumed a malignant type, and frequently terminated fatally the fifth day, with almost every mark of the yellow fever as laid down in the books, both in town and country settlements. The same season was noted for unusual sickness in most parts of the United

States. The type was generally bilious; great mortality prevailed along the Wabash and White rivers in Indiana.

The summer and autumn of 1821, was another sickly seacon, though the fever was not as malignant and mortal as the preceding year. The population of St. Louis that year was about 5000. A register of all the burials was kept by the late Rev. Mr. Giddings; the number 136. This gives a ratio of one in thirty-five and forty-eight hundreths; by no means an alarming result. Comparing the tables of mortality the preceding year in Boston, New York, Philadelphia and Baltimore with the aggregate population of those cities, and the result is favorable to St Louis. And, then, not a street was paved in St. Louis, no sanitary regulations of any kind adopted, and full one-third of the deaths was from strangers and transient persons, who arrived sick, or were taken sick within two three days after arrival.

We have filled up our article without having exhausted our materials. Should the subject attract the attention of our readers, we may resume it in a future number.

COMMERCIAL DEPARTMENT.

COMMERCE OF ST. LOUIS.

We have several times suggested the importance of establishing some system by which the imports and exports of St. Louis can be ascertained with a sufficient degree of accuracy, to enable all who are in any way interested in the commerce of the Mississippi valley, to form a reasonable judgement in respect to the amount and value of its productions and consumption. The discrepancy which appears between the amount of imports, registered on the Harbor Master's books, and the table published in the "Annual Review of St. Louis for the year 1854," is so great that we desire once more to call the attention of the merchants of St. Louis to this subject. By comparing the following table of imports made up by ourselves in person from the Harbor Master's books, with the table published in the Annual Review, it will be seen that the greatest discrepancies are found in respect to the leading staples, where it is most important that accuracy should prevail.

It is true that our tables only show the amount of imports received by the river, but it is most certain that the quantity received by land does not account for the great difference in the tables. We do not know the cause of this difference, but if the table in the Annual Report be correct, then we should say there is no use in imposing upon the Harbor Master the duty of keeping a register of the imports, for in that case it is calculated to mislead rather than to enlighten the public.

COMMERCE OF ST LOUIS.

Imports into St. Louis by the river for five years commencing January 1st, 1850, and ending December 31st, 1854.

Articles	1854.	1853.	1852.	1851.	1850.
Apples, green, barrels.	1354	8905	9211	13094	20291
" dried, bls. & sacks	15445	16551	9218	20612½	14766
Axes, boxes	190	671	1415	692	1875
Bacon, casks	20444	16123	16727½	76183½	27106
" boxes	592	2014	979	962	6195
" bulk, pounds	56449	890179	889403	310495	558703
Bagging, pieces	2795	2679	3367	2765	1262
Barley, bushels	102972	110973	144774	149859	72591
Beans, barrels	3918	1650	1420	1862	1378
" sacks	4182	5107	15296	8156	3017
Beef, barrels	3829	8093	18903	19119	11423
" half do.	11	167	619	1854	775
" tierces	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Beeswax, sacks	337	242	387½	650½	.....
" barrels	55	132	.....	.....	.....
" boxes	43	173	.....	.....	.....
Boots, boxes	6526	11380	27671	19735	27160
" trunks	1221	300	265	680	2800
Brandy, barrels	1096½	2393½	3035	2855	5723
Buffalo Robes	4922	10737	59441	95844	67654
Butter, barrels	1353½	2306½	2135	2181	1926
" kegs	4183	3617	3648	4545½	5349
" firkins	1103	2482	3013	3636	3234
Candles, sperm, boxes.	1914	1639	423	139	496
" tallow, do.	1263	1349	853	2092	2806
Cattle	1806	2792	1892	1819	1376
Cheese, boxes	14039	18486	27286	31340	26385
" casks	543	299	70	422	.....
Cider, barrels	83	317	216½	540½	801
Cigars, foreign, boxes	303	824	353	1098	2605
" domestic	83	233	1241	938	1633
Coffee, sacks	106064	80908	105858	103123	73281
Corn, bushels	1065398	765239	647154	1834689	1016077
Dry Goods, boxes	46515	99868	126925	108583	94162
" packages	742002	721171	586348	480589	362936
" bales	5471	28817	31162	41224	26298
Fish, kegs	467	873	1092	1810	1198
" boxes	1207	2255	2670	4783	5843
" barrels	649	2617	5883	6864	6758

Imports into St. Louis by the river for five years, &c.
[CONTINUED.]

Articles.	1854.	1853.	1852.	1851.	1850.
Fish, half barrels	350	1484	2394	2105	2192
Feathers, sacks.....	1741	1214	1213	1143	1593
Flax Seed, barrels.....	5796	9781	6703	4400½	2348
Flour, barrels.....	153579	193251	136599	194857	326072
" half do.....	300	1612	6572	6324	7321
Furs, packages.....	1855	1487	1793	3051	2180
Gin, barrels.....	18	437	504	939	796
Ginseng, sacks & bbls.	437	327	270	42	877
Hay, bales.....	18739	19769	15689	23280	25271
Hemp, bales.....	67599	63209	53331	64607	62798
Hemp Seed, barrels ..	428	493	400	355	750
Hides	46431	92924	107858	99302	86875
Hogs	27776	15611	22822	17885	12226
Horses.....	477	1141	1375	833	2098
Iron Bars, tons.....	2679½	21486	10056	9387¼	14322
" pig "	11760	8022	9820	6683½	4468
" castings "	192	1666	8737¼	1214	2485
Lard, barrels.....	44252	32490	46020½	60646½	100001
" kegs.....	10001	12747	10119	16227	17133
Lead, pigs	320436	509484	416985	521734	601787
" bars.....	.....	21000	1664	38250	113150
" white, kegs.....	436	747	306	797	8975
" red, do.....	144	47	.....	91	.....
Leather.....	6377	11120	10204	.....	.....
Malt Liquors, barrels..	1014	8837	11324½	8200½	7725
Molasses, barrels.....	50972	53291	60268	40530½	32463
Mules.....	4	212	475	.....	.....
Nails, kegs.....	59280	64051	60435	63736	88813
Oakum, bales.....	836	676	457	1506	2612
Oats, bushels	902726	555391	606397	776041	712617
Onions, sacks & barrels	7071	26523	19471	21897	14629
Oils, Sperm, barrels...	426	305	556	1677	2038
" Castor, do. ...	92	135	226	459	1678
" Linseed, do. ...	392	1132	1858	1201½	2587
" Train, do. ...	693	706	245	384	348
" Lard, do. ...	100	353	139	212	.....
Paper, wrapping, reams	28525	27229	68319	47914	50506
" writing, do. ...	3948	14126	6341	6579	10990
Peaches, green, barrels	114	689	372½	1207	743
" dried, do. ...	1609	860	851	1187	2260
" " sacks.....	15159	9136	4126	4273	5831
Peltries, packages	223	927	1061	1066	1362

Imports into St. Louis by the river for five years, &c.

[CONTINUED.]

Articles.		1853.	1852.	1851.	1850.
Pork, barrels	53195	89079	75483	114899	135662
" half barrels	11240	1655	1693	3052	7321
" in bulk, lbs	227328	8172164	9015969	11873645	11474041
Potatoes, bls & sacks	126903	88040	57378	58650	13401
Powder, kegs & can.	5524	8244	13019	14887	18505
Queensware, casks	1652	1986	1652	2720	3197
" crates	1074	1273	2039	2453	2508
Rice, tierces	2215	2879	2848	2579½	3389
" barrels	95	154½	.....	.....	.....
Rope, hemp, coils	35817	46732	42567	33935	23442
" Manilla, do.	1053	832	1500	1643	5649
" Tarred, do	124	721	299	.....	.....
Rum, barrels	347½	451	88	198	706
Rye, bushels	28143	22097	5571	7656	3468
Salt, dom., fine, bbls	.....	4072	58	444	805
" " coarse "	23595	48301	44980	37200	24219
" Liv. B., sacks	4300	65174	19841	17302	23252
" G. A. do	250848	96498	198136	119867	159699
" T. I. do	10841	9766	83176	46694	98038
Sheep	2586	2074	4123	6001	2924
Shoes, boxes	5332	6281	12364	12057	17022
" trunks	84	298	256	509	2618
Skins	4734	5621	4997	5152	6718
Soap, boxes	2263	6199	917	2521	.....
Starch, boxes,	2246	3235	2789	.....	.....
Sugar, hogsheads	58103	46491	39447	29722	24159
" barrels	4642	15005	14937½	22270	12273
" boxes	7036	7916	18442	16098	13926
Tallow, casks	48	374	448	376	439
" barrels	687	835	3136½	1175½	809
Tar, barrels	2782	8540	13395	10000	1126
" kegs	3040	1985	3283	5800	5219
Tin Plate, boxes	5423	10779	7663	6677	9993
Tea, chests	1287	1110	974	1058	2873
" half chests	7691	1003	1241	2694	5906
Tobacco, hhds	9372	8988	13708	10286	9272
" boxes, manu.	5084	8221	16121½	10235	10309
Vinegar, barrels	15	153	325	755	1134
Wheat, bushels	1492914	1318455	1624186	1644861	1863750
Whiskey, barrels	48647	44893	50887	48541½	38813
Wine, barrels	813	2989	3877	5264½	8972
Wool, sacks	965	1554	1312	1684	1509

WHEAT TRADE OF ST. LOUIS IN 1854.

The high prices of wheat in Great Britain, in 1853, and in the early part of 1854, created a demand for exportation from the United States, which left very little of the old crop on hand at the commencement of the harvest of 1854, and though the crop of this year fell but little, if anything, below the average of ordinary seasons, and though there was no considerable export demand, yet other causes conspired to advance the price of the new crop, and sustain high prices in the Mississippi valley throughout the entire year. Among these causes may be mentioned the very short crop of Indian corn occasioned by the severe drought and the great emigration to the new States.

The stock of wheat in the stores and mills, at St. Louis, on the first of January, 1854, was estimated at 130,000 bushels. On the third of January, sales were made at $1.20 per bushel exclusive of sacks, and a considerable lot of mixed, red and white at $1.31 p. bushel sacks included. By reference to the "Annual Review of the Commerce of St. Louis," published at the Republican office, from which we take our facts, it seems that prices remained pretty uniform from the 1st to about the 25th of January, when owing to favorable advices from Europe, prices advanced, and large sales were made during the latter part of the month at $1.45 p. bushel without sacks. Prices continued to range from $1.30 to $1.45 as in quality, until about the 25th of February, when a slight decline took place, and at the close of the month sales were made ranging from $1.10 to $1.25 per bushel. These figures may be regarded as representing the market during the month of March and to about the middle of April, though we find the sale of a lot of white flint on the 29th of March reported at $1.35. Owing to more favorable advices from Europe, received about the middle of April, prices again advanced, and prime qualities were sold as high as $1.50 per bushel—the range of prices during the last half of the month being from $1.20 to $1.50 per bushel as in quality. At the commencement of May, prices again advanced, and we observe a sale made on the 8th of that month for the Ohio river at $1.60 per bushel exclusive of sacks. About the middle of the month, a slight decline took place, and we find the prices ranging at its close at from $1.20 to $1.45, and very choice from $1.45 to $1.53 per bushel. These prices seem to have been sustained until about the middle of June, when the market became dull, and at the close of the month common to good qualities of fall ranged from $1.05 to $1.20, and prime and choice from $1.20 to $1.28 per bushel.

A few lots of the new crop came to market about the first of July, and were sold for milling at from $1.30 to $1.50 p. bushel, but the price soon declined and fluctuated during the month from $1.00 to $1.15 per bushel for the better qualities. These rates

continued to rule until about the middle of August, when they advanced and ranged, with little variation, from $1.30 to $1.45 per bushel for good and prime qualities until the close of the year.

The following table, made up from the Harbor Master's Books, exhibits the quantity delivered at the St. Louis market from the river in each month of the year 1854:

January and February,	10,992	August,	135,339
March,	186,032	September,	170,447
April,	161,438	October,	178,621
May,	147,784	November,	167,007
June,	158,729	December,	110,555
July,	65,970		
		Total	1,492,914

From the "Annual Review of the Commerce of St. Louis."

DRY GOODS.

It is much to be regretted that we have not the same reliable statistical information with regard to the Dry Goods business that is afforded in some of the seaport cities.

The following estimates have been compiled with care, and are as strictly reliable as it is possible to obtain them. We have in this city thirty-two exclusively Wholesale or Jobbing Dry Goods Houses. Many of the merchants dislike the idea of making an expose of their business; but after conversing with some, and obtaining the views of others with regard to the business of individual houses, we think it may be safely assumed that their average sales are at least $300,000 per annum. We have the sales by Jobbers of Dry Goods, which amount to $9,600,000. There are, also, thirty-seven houses, many of which sell almost exclusively to the country both Dry Goods and Groceries, and we think it a close approximation to the facts, to assume their average sales of Dry Goods at $50,000 per annum, each. This gives us $1,850,000, making the sales for the past year $11,450,000. This estimate does not embrace seventy retail houses [many of them ornaments to the city,] that likewise wholesale a large amount during the year.

It is impossible, under the existing circumstances, to arrive at a more satisfactory conclusion, and if our estimate be correct, does it not speak volumes in favor of the stability and solvency of this branch of the trade? For, from sources which we deem equally entitled to confidence, we think we may state the actual capital employed at $5,500,000. Among merchants it is deemed a fair supposition that transactions to three times the amount of capital may be prudently effected; whereas, from the foregoing estimates, it appears the business does not reach that ratio by $5,000,000.

Within the past year there was not manifested among Jobbers a disposition to increase sales; but business was done on a substan-

tial basis, and our merchants passed the commercial ordeal of the last six months unscathed; and this, too, without the aid of banking accommodations; for the $600,000 capital of the Bank of Missouri is totally inadequate to the demands of the community.

The area of trade, within the last year, was materially extended. Arkansas, the Western district of Tennessee, and Western Kentucky, have commenced making their purchases in St. Louis; and we confidently anticipate a large and increased business from these States.

The fact that so large a portion of the retail merchants scattered over the States of Missouri, Iowa and Illinois, obtain their supplies of Dry Goods in this city, will not strike with surprise those who are familiar with the character of our merchants; for, so far as integrity of purpose, energy in the prosecution of business, a high-toned sense of right and wrong, forethought and prudence are concerned, the Dry Goods Jobbers of St. Louis are not surpassed by a like number of merchants in the Union. The high credit they enjoy among Commission Merchants and Importers in the Eastern cities, and the manufacturers of England, Ireland and Scotland, and Continental Europe, clearly demonstrate this. Scarcely a day passes that some Agent of a Foreign House is not seeking orders from them. If the credit of Jobbers of any city in the Union be equal to that enjoyed by our merchants, surely none, in this respect, enjoy a higher position. They thus have it in their power to afford, and do offer to the retail trade tributary to St. Louis, goods upon as favorable terms as they can be obtained from any other point. A mutual confidence, to an unusual degree, exists between the Jobbers and country merchants, and the increased and increasing trade fully demonstrates that the course of policy adopted by the former, has been properly appreciated by the latter.

Although this branch of business, within the past ten years, has increased in an unprecedented degree, it has been done in a legitimate manner and upon a stable substratum. The country in the interior has become more populous, and the trade and growth of the city, have been commensurate with the increased wealth of the country.

With an abundant supply of most of the important staples grown in the country, and these commanding more than a remunerative price to the producer, we have full confidence that this branch of business will steadily and constantly advance.

May not our Dry Goods Jobbers, then, enter the new year with sanguine hopes and flattering prospects of realizing the fruits of their prudential policy?

The Adventures of the Last Abencerage.

From the French of Chateaubriand.

BY I. W. TAYLOR, ESQ.

Continued.

Donna Blanca was descended from a family which drew its origin from the Cid of Bivar and from Chimene, the daughter of Count Gomez of Gormas. The posterity of the conqueror of "Valence la Belle" had fallen, through the ingratitude of the court of Castile, into extreme poverty; so obscure, indeed, had it become, that for many generations the world supposed it to be actually extinct. But towards the time of the conquest of Grenada, the grandfather of Blanca, then the last hope of the once famous house of the Bivars, made himself known not so much by the imposing dignity of his titles, as by the shining proofs of his valor. After the expulsion of the infidels, Ferdinand bestowed upon the descendent of the Cid the confiscated estates of many Moorish families, and created him Duke of Santa Fe. The new Duke established his residence at Grenada, and died whilst he was still young, leaving an only son, Don Rodrigo, father of Blanca.

Donna Theresa de Xeres, the wife of Don Rodrigo, gave birth to a son who received the ancestral name of Rodrigo, but was also called Carlos, in order to distinguish him from his father. The great events in the midst of which Don Carlos had lived from his earliest infancy, and the perils to which he had been exposed almost from the hour of his birth, could but render more grave and severe a character naturally inclined to austerity. He was scarcely arrived at the age of fourteen years, when he followed Cortez to Mexico: he had experienced all the dangers, and been a witness of all the horrors of that amazing series of adventures; and he had aided in producing the fall of the last king of the new world. Three years after that catastrophe, Don Carlos was in Europe, at the battle of Pavie, as if expressly to behold unblemished honor and glorious valor, yield to the stern decrees of unsparing fate. The aspect of a new universe, long voyages upon unexplored seas, and the spectacle of revolutions, and the vicissitudes of fortune, had greatly inflamed the melancholy and religious imagination of Don Carlos: he had entered into the chivalrous order of Calatrava, and, despite the prayers of his father, had renounced marriage, and given up his inheritance to his sister.

Blanca De Bivar, sole sister of Don Carlos, and much younger than himself, was the idol of her father: she had lost her mother, and was entering on her eighteenth year, when Aben-Hamet appeared at Grenada. All seductive charms seemed concentrated in that enchanting woman; her voice was ravishing; her dance more airy than the movement of the zephyr: sometimes she amused herself by guiding a chariot as Armida, and sometimes she flew upon the back of an Andalusian courser, like those bewitching fairies which appeared to Tristran and Galaor, in the depths of the forests. Athens would have taken her for an Aspasia, and Paris for a Diana of Poitiers, whose brilliant reign at court was just begun. But with the charms of the women of France, she combined the glowing passions of the Spanish maiden; and her instinctive coquetry diminished nothing from the firmness, the

constancy, the force and the elevation of the sentiments which filled her heart.

At the cry raised by the frightened Spanish maidens, when Aben-Hamet precipitated himself into their secluded grove, Don Rodrigo rushed forth. "Father," said Blanca, "behold the Signor Moor, of whom I have spoken to you. He heard me singing, and recognised the sound of my voice; he is now here to thank me for having conducted his lost steps to the kan of the Moors."

The Duke of Santa Fe received the Abencerage with the grave but simple politeness of the Spaniards. It is impossible to see among the people of that nation any air of servility, or to recognise any form of expression which indicates abasement of thought or degradation of soul. The language of the grand Signor and of the simple peasant is the same; their salutations the same; their compliments, customs and usages are alike. In the ratio that the confidence and the generosity of these people towards strangers are without limit, is their vengeance implacable and terrible when aroused. Of heroic courage and a patience which no trials can shake, incapable of yielding to misfortune, it is necessary to conquer or be crushed by them. They are not liberally endowed with genius; but sublimated passion supplies the want of subtlety and abundant ideas. A Spaniard who has passed the day in moody silence, who has seen nothing, and cares not to behold anything, who has read nothing, studied nothing, compared nothing, feels ever, in the fierce intensity of his resolves, resources which arm his soul against any adversity.

It was the birth-day of Don Rodrigo, and Blanca gave to her father a "*turtellia*" or little fete, in their enchanting solitude. The Duke of Santa Fe invited Aben-Hamet to seat himself in the midst of the young girls who amused themselves with the turban and robe of the stranger. They brought for him cushions of velvet, and the Abencerage reposed himself upon them, agreeably to the custom of the Moors. Many questions were proposed to him as to his country and his adventures: he replied to all of them with spirit and vivacity. He spoke the purest Castilian, and would have been taken for a Spaniard, except for his habitual use of *thou* in place of *you*. This word had such inexpressible tenderness from his lips, that Blanca could not suppress a secret pang when he addressed it to any one of her companions.

Instantly a multitude of servants appeared, bearing chocolate, pies made of fruits, and little cakes made of Malaga sugar, white as snow and porous as the most delicate sponge. After the service of refreshments, Blanca was entreated to execute one of those dances in character in which she surpassed the most accomplished *guitanas*. She felt obliged to yield to the importunity of her surrounding friends. Aben-Hamet had preserved silence; but his imploring looks spoke more eloquently than words. Blanca selected a *zambra*, an expressive dance which Spaniards had borrowed from the Moors.

One of her young companions commenced upon the guitar the air of the foreign dance. The daughter of Don Rodrigo removed her veil, and attached to her snowy hands castinets of ebony. Her raven hair fell in curling masses upon her neck of alabaster; her lips and eyes smiled in beauteous concert, and her bounding heart suffused her cheek with glowing hues. Suddenly, she rattled the noisy ebony, struck the measure three times, gave the key-note of the zambra, and

mingling her voice with the sound of the guitar, she started like the flash of an electric beam.

What variety of steps! What elegance of attitude! Sometimes she lifted her arms with vivacity of manner, and then permitted them to fall with a gentle languor. Sometimes she sprang forth as if intoxicated with pleasure, and then retreated as though overwhelmed with sorrow. She turns her head, seems to call some invisible presence, inclines modestly one rosy cheek to the bridal kiss of a husband, flies timidly, returns blushing and consoled, moves with a step noble and almost warrior-like, then leaps again upon the flowery turf. The harmony of her steps, with her song and the sounds of the guitar, was perfect. The voice of Blanca, slightly subdued, had that sort of accent which moves the passions of the soul to their profoundest depths. The music of Spain, composed of sighs and active movements, of sad refrains and tones abruptly ended, presents a singular mixture of gaiety and melancholy. That music and that dance fixed forever the fate of the last Abencerage: they were indeed sufficient to disturb a heart less deeply stricken than his own.

At evening they returned to Grenada by the valley of the Douro. Don Rodrigo charmed with the noble and polished manners of Aben-Hamet, was unwilling to separate himself form him, unless the latter would promise to visit him often and amuse Blanca with the marvelous stories of Oriental climes. The Moor filled with ineffable transport accepted the invitation of the Duke of Santa Fe; and from the morrow he presented himself at the palace where lived the being whom he loved more than the light of heaven.

Blanca soon found herself absorbed by a passion rendered profound and consuming for the very reason that she looked upon it as hopeless. To love an infidel, a Moor, an unknown, appeared to her a thing so impossible that she took no precaution to guard against the flame which began to glow along her veins; but as soon as she felt the symptoms, she welcomed the malady with the reckless daring of a Spanish maiden. The dangers and the mortifications which she foresaw, did not make her recoil from the brink of the abyss, nor debate long with her heart. She said to herself: "Aben-Hamet may become a Christian, he may love me, and I would then follow him to the end of the earth."

The Abencerage experienced on his own part all the power of an overwhelming passion: henceforward he lived only for Blanca. He no longer occupied himself about the projects which had brought him to Grenada: it was easy for him to obtain the intelligence which he had come to seek; but any other interest than that which regarded his love had vanished from his eyes. He dreaded even any revelations which might effect a change in the tenor of his life. He asked nothing, he wished to know nothing; he would say to himself: "Blanca may become a Mussulman, she may love me, and I would serve her to my latest breath."

Aben-Hamet and Blanca, thus decided in their resolutions, only awaited a favorable moment to make mutual discovery of their sentiments. It was then the most beautiful season of the year. "You have not yet seen the Alhambra," said the daughter of the Duke of Santa Fe to the Abencerage. "If I may credit certain words which have escaped you, your family is originally from Grenada. Would you be

pleased to visit the palace of your ancient kings? I myself will serve you this evening as guide." Aben-Hamet protested in the name of the Prophet that never could excursion be more agreeable to him.

The hour fixed upon for the pilgrimage to the Alhambra being arrived, the daughter of Don Rodrigo mounted a white jenet which was accustomed to climb the rocks like a roe-buck. Aben-Hamet on an Andalusian courser, caparisoned in the Turkish manner, accompanied the beautiful Spaniard. In the rapid ride of the young Moor his purple robe expanded with the wind, his curved sabre resounded against his saddle, and the breeze agitated the plume of heron feathers which surmounted his turban. The people, delighted with his charming grace, exclaimed on beholding him as he passed: "It is an infidel prince whom Donna Blanca is going to convert."

They followed at first a long street which bears even yet the name of an illustrious Moorish family; that street is terminated by the exterior enclosure of the Alhambra. They traversed then a grove of elms, arrived at a fountain, and soon found themselves before the inner enclosure of the palace of Boabdil. In a wall flanked by towers and surmounted by battlements there opened a gate, called the *Gate of Judgement.* They passed through this first gate, and advanced by a narrow path which wound among high walls and half ruined houses. This path conducted them to the place of the Algibes near to which Charles V. was then building a palace. From there turning towards the north, they stoped in a deserted court at the foot of a wall without ornaments and partially ruined by time. Aben-Hamet leaping lightly to the ground, offered his hand to Blanca to aid her descent from her mule. The attendants rapped at a deserted gate, the sill of which was concealed by the growing grass: the gate was opened, and they suddenly beheld the secret recesses of the Alhambra.

All the charms, and all the regrets of country, mingled with the illusions of love, thrilled the heart of the last Abencerage. Fixed and silent, he looked with astonished eyes into that habitation of the genii; he fancied himself transported to the entrance of one of those palaces of which description is given in the Arabian Tales. Fairy galleries, canals walled with snowy marble and bordered with flowering citron and orange trees, fountains and deserted courts, presented themselves on all sides to the eyes of Aben-Hamet; and through the receding arches of columned porticoes, he beheld still other labyrinths and new enchantments. The azure of the most beautiful sky could be seen between the columns which sustained a row of gothic arches. The walls covered with arabesques resembled in appearance those Oriental stuffs embroidered by pining slaves to relieve the ennui of the Harem. A mingled air of voluptuousness, of religion, and of warlike pomp pervaded the magic edifice; it was a cloister of love, a mysterious retreat, where the Moorish kings tasted all the pleasures, and forgot all the duties of life.

After some moments of surprise and silence, the two lovers entered into this home of vanished power and departed joys. They made at first the circuit of the hall of Mesucar, amid the perfume of flowers and the freshness of living waters. They then penetrated into the Hall of Lions. The emotion of Aben-Hamet increased at each step. "If thou hadst not filled my soul with ecstacy," said he to Blanca,

"with what chagrin must I confess myself obliged to demand of thee, of thee, a Spaniard, the history of these habitations! Ah! these places are made to serve as the retreat of happiness; and I!" * * *

Aben-Hamet perceived the name of Boabdil set in mosaics. "Oh my king," exclaimed he, "what has become of thee? Where shall I find thee in thy deserted Alhambra?" And the tears of fidelity, of loyalty and of honor dimmed the eyes of the young Moor. "Your ancient masters," said Blanca, "or rather the kings of your fathers were ungrateful." — "What signifies it?" replied the Abencerage; "they have been unhappy!"

As he pronounced these words, Blenca conducted him into a cabinet which seemed to be the very sanctuary of the temple of love. Nothing could equal the elegance of that retreat: the entire vault painted azure and gold, and composed of open arabesques, admitted the light as through a tissue of flowers. A fountain leaped up in the midst of the edifice, and its rosy waters were received into an alabaster shell. "Aben Hamet," said the daughter of the Duke of Santa Fe, "look closely at that fountain: it received the mangled heads of the Abencerages. You behold yet upon the marble a spot of the blood of the wretches whom Boabdil sacrificed to his suspicions. It is thus, in your country, men are treated who seduce confiding women."

Aben-Hamet no longer heard Blanca; he prostrated himself and kissed with respect the trace of the blood of his ancestors. Raising himself he exclaimed: "O Blanca! I swear by the blood of these cavaliers, to love thee with the constancy, the fidelity and the ardor of an Abencerage."

"You love me then!" replied Blanca, joining her beautiful hands, and lifting her eyes to heaven. But do you recollect that you are infidel, Moor, and enemy; and that I am christian and Spaniard?"

"Oh holy Prophet," said Aben-Hamet, "be thou witness of my vows!" * * * Blanca interrupting him asked: "What faith can I place in the vows of a persecutor of my God? Do you know whether I love you? Who has given you assurance to address me thus?"

Aben-Hamet, in dismay, replied: "It is true, I am but thy slave; thou hast not chosen me for thy cavalier."

"Moor," replied Blanca, "drop the deceit; thou hast seen by my looks that I love thee: my madness for thee passes all limit; be thou Christian, and nothing shall hinder me from being thine. But if the daughter of the Duke of Santa Fe dares speak to thee with this frankness, thou canst judge from it, that she knows how to conquer herself, and that an enemy of Christians shall never have right to command her."

Aben-Hamet, in a transport of passion, seized the hands of Blanca, placed them upon his turban and then upon his heart. "Allah is great," exclaimed he, "and Aben-Hamet is happy! Oh Mahomet! that this Christian may know thy law, and that nothing may * * * * "Thou blasphemist," said Blanca: "Let us go hence."

She supported herself on the arm of the Moor, approached the Fountain of the Twelve Lions, which gives its name to one of the courts of the Alhambra: "Stranger," said the naive Spaniard, "when I look upon thy robe, thy turban, thy arms, and think of our loves, I fancy that I behold the shade of the handsome Abencerage walking in

this deserted retreat with the unfortunate Alfaima. Explain to me the Arabic inscription graven upon the marble of that fountain."

Aben-Hamet read these words:

The fair princess, covered with pearls, who walks in her garden, adds so largely to its beauty * * * The remainder of the inscription was effaced.

"It is for thee that this inscription has been made," said Aben-Hamet. "Beloved Sultana, these palaces were never so beautiful in their freshness as they are this day in their ruins. Listen to the noise of the moss-covered fountains; look at the gardens which are seen through these crumbling arches; behold the day-star which sets beyond these columned porches: how pleasant it is to wander with thee in these places! Thy words, like the roses of Hymen, embalm these soft retreats. With what charm do I recognize in thy language certain accents of the tongue of my fathers! the mere rustle of thy robe upon these marbles thrills my heart. The air is perfumed only because it has kissed thy tresses. Thou art beautiful, as the genius of my country, amid these ruins. But can Aben-Hamet hope to win thy heart? What is he to thee? He has roamed over the mountains with his father; he knows the plants of the desert * * *; alas! there is no plant can cure him of the wound which thou hast made! he bears arms, but is no longer cavalier. I said to myself in other days: The water of the sea, slumbering in sheltered repose in the crevice of the rock, is tranquil and silent, while near by the great sea is agitated and resounding. Aben-Hamet, thus shall be thy life, silent, peaceful, obscure in an unknown corner of the world, whilst the court of the Sultan is torn by the storm. This I said to myself, young Christian, but thou hast proven to me that the tempest can also disturb the drop of water in the crevice of the rock?"

Blanca heard with rapture this language new to her, and of which the Oriental tone so well accorded with the fairy home through which she wandered with her lover. From a thousand sources love poured into her heart; her trembling knees were sinking; and she was obliged to lean more heavenly on the arm of her guide. Aben-Hamet sustained the gentle burthen; and as they advanced, repeated: "Ah! why am I not a brilliant Abencerage!"

"Thou wouldst please me less," said Blanca, "for I should be more disquieted: remain obscure, and live for me. Often a famous cavalier forgets love in the pursuit of glory."

"Thou couldst not have this danger to fear," replied Aben-Hamet with emotion.

"And how wouldst thou love then, if thou wert an Abencerage?" said the descendent of Chimene.

"I would love thee," replied the Moor, "more than glory, and only less than honor."

[To be continued.]

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Manufacturers.

THOMAS GREE, Blacksmith and Iron Worker, No. 90 North Second street, between Olive and Locust, St. Louis, Mo., keeps constantly on hand and manufactures to order Ox Chains, Sledges, Wedges, and every description of Mining Tools, also Iron Bobbins and Picket Pins. ☞ Blacksmith work for Housebuilders, at the lowest prices. ☞ He has always on hand the highly recommended Iron Frame Bedstead, and Camp Stool.

Mathematical Instruments.

J. BLATTNER, Mathematical and Surgical Instrument maker, Dealer in Guns, Pistols and Sporting Materials, No. 58 North Second street, between Pine and Olive, St. Louis, Mo., manufactures, and has always on hand: Surveyor's Compasses, Levelling Instruments, Theodolite Pocket Compasses, Spy-glasses, Barometers, Thermometers, Drawing Instruments, Spectacles, Ivory and Gunter's Scales and Protractors, Hour and Half Hour Glasses, Microscopes and Magnifying Glasses, Hydrometers of silver and glass, hydrometers for acids and salts, Magic Lanterns, Electrical Machines, &c., also, Surgical and Dental Instruments; Pocket, Dissecting, Cupping and self-injecting cases; Tayler's Shears, all sizes; Syringes, large and small; Scarificators, Lancets; Forceps; Turnkeys; large Scales and Weights for Druggists; Prescription Scales on Stands; Revolvers, Guns, Pistols, Powder Flasks, Game Bags, &c. ☞ All the above Instruments repaired at short notice in the best manner.

Fruit Trees.

FRUIT TREES AND SHRUBBERY, for sale by the undersigned, at their fruit farm and nursery. This establishment is located seven miles South of St. Louis, Mo. There are Omnibus Coaches running daily from the City within one half mile of the establishment. The Nursery and Gardens are open at all times (Sundays excepted) for the reception of visitors. Horticulturists and amateurs are respectfully invited to visit the establishment and examine for themselves. In directing the attention of the public to their nursery, they would remark that one of the firm, (Mr. James Sigerson,) has been engaged in the above business for the last twenty-five years; during that time he has tested many of the varieties now growing. This, with the assurance on their part of an intention to increase the number of their trees, as well as to add to their assortment from year to year, furnishes a strong guarantee to persons wishing to make choice selections of fruit, that they can always be supplied. Their prices for trees will be as reasonable as at any similar establishment East or West, and when desired, trees will be delivered free of charge in the city or on steamboats; packed in good order for their destination.

☞ All letters addressed to John Sigerson, St. Louis, or to James Sigerson, Carondelet, will meet with prompt attention.

JOHN SIGERSON & BROTHERS.

Hardware.

P. WONDERLY, Manufacturer of Copper, Tin and Sheet Iron Work—such as Copper Pipes for Steamboats and Distilleries, Soda Fountains, Copper cities, Well and Cistern Pumps, and every other article in his line of business. No. 238 Main street, South-east corner of Cherry, St. Louis, Mo. He also manufactures and keeps constantly on hand, Premium Steamboat Cooking Stoves. Tinware always on hand, wholesale and retail.

Furniture.

WM. H. HARLOW, proprietor of the St. Louis Furniture Store, manufactures and keeps constantly on hand every variety of household furniture, matresses, window blinds, willow ware, &c.

Also, manufactures to order every article in his line, with despatch. Orders from abroad promptly attended to, and goods carefully packed. All goods warranted as recommended.

New Warehouse, No. 58 Second street, between Olive and Locust streets, St. Louis, Mo.

Slate Yard.

JOHN M. CANNON, Slater, No. 15 and 17 South Sixth street, St. Louis, would respectfully inform the public that, having now completed his arrangements, he is prepared to make contracts for any work in his line. He has in his employ practical slaters, and is well prepared to execute in a workmanslike manner, and with despatch, all orders entrusted to his care. He keeps constantly on hand, and for sale, Welch slate, rich tiles, sheet lead, slate flagging, slate hearths, copper, brass and iron slating nails, Rosendale cement, and all other articles pertaining to his business. He will strip from roofs and, sheet iron, tin, or other covering, and substitute therefor slate. Slate removed from one roof, can be used to advantage on another, which is not the case with any other roofing material. His terms are such as cannot but prove satisfactory. Apply as above.

Paper Hangings.

WOLF & ENGERT, importers and dealers in Paper Hangings, Colors and Fancy Papers, No. 29 South Second street, between Elm and Myrtle, St. Louis, Mo, Constantly on hand, all kinds of oil and water colors, paper-hangings, chimney screens, tester pieces, window shades, marble, marroquin, Gold and Silver paper, painters' and Dutch gold bronze, lead pencils, paint boxes, paint brushes, drawing paper, &c. Aprtl. 1850

Washington Steam Sash Factory.

E. PHILIBERT,

WASHINGTON Avenue and 14th street, south side St. Louis, Mo., makes Doors, Sash and Blinds Also, Door and Window Frames. Terms moderate N. B.—Slitting and Planing, done here.

Banking Houses.

PAGE & BACON, Banking House No. 139 Main street, St. Louis, next door to the Bank of Missouri.

N. B. Deposits received, Drafts and Notes from all parts of the Union collected and Exchange on the East and South for sale at all times.

Also Branches of Exchange and Banking Houses at San Francisco and Sacramento Cities, California.

L. A. BENOIST & CO., bankers and exchange dealers, No. 83 Main street, east side third door north of Olive street, St. Louis, Mo. Interest paid to depositors, drafts and notes collected, sight and time bills purchased and sight exchange on the eastern cities and New Orleans for sale, at the lowest rates, in sums to suit purchasers.

JOHN J. ANDERSON & CO., bankers and exchange dealers on the north-west corner of Main and Olive streets, St. Louis, Mo. Interests paid to depositors, drafts and notes collected, sight and time bills purchased and exchange on the eastern cities and New Orleans for sale at the lowest rates.

JOKER, RENICK & CO., bankers and exchange dealers, No. 137 Main street, west side, third door north of Vine street, St. Louis, Mo. Interest paid to depositors, drafts and notes collected, sight and time bills purchased and sight exchange on the eastern cities and New Orleans for sale at the lowest rates in sums to suit purchasers.

LUCAS & SIMONDS, Bankers and Exchange Dealers, Corner of Main and Chestnut Streets, St. Louis, Mo.

Drugs.

CHARLESS, BLOW & CO., Importers and Wholesale Dealers in Drugs, Paints, White Lead, Oils, Window Glass, Glassware, Perfumery, &c., Nos. 70 and 74 Main Streets St. Louis, Mo. ☞ N. B. Country and Steamboat trade supplied at highest market rates.

St. Louis Cotton Factory.

ADOLPHUS MEIER & CO., Manufacturers of St. Louis Cotton Yarn, &c., Importers and Dealers in Hardware and Cutlery, No. 23, corner of Main & Chestnut Streets, St. Louis, Mo.

Hats & Caps.

H. & R. B. WHITEHORNE & CO., wholesale dealers in Hats, Caps, Bonnets and Straw Goods, No. 143 Main str., St. Louis, Mo. ☞ Cash paid for Furs and Deer Skins.

Dry Goods.

CROW, McCREERY & CO., Wholesale dealers in Dry Goods, No. 71 Main street, St. Louis, Mo. Wayman Crow, Phocion R. McCreery, Wm. H. Barksdale, Wm. A. Hirgusline, Charles D. Appleton.

WOODS, CHRISTY & CO., wholesale dealers in Dry Goods, No. 75 Main street, St. Louis, Mo. James Woods, William T. Christy, James C. Christy, Robert K. Woods.

CHOUTEAU, HARRISON & VALLE, Commission Merchants and Proprietors of the St. Louis Rolling Mill. Manufacturers, from the ore of the Iron Mountain, of Bar Iron, in all its various shapes, Sheet Iron and Boiler Plate, Nails, Spikes, &c., &c.

Warehouse No. 129 North 3d street, St. Louis

Watches and Jewelry.

C. D. SULLIVAN & CO.,

JEWELLERS, Watch and Clock Makers, No. 49 Fourth Street, opposite the Planter's House. A large and well selected assortment of Clocks, Watches, Jewelry and silver Spoons constantly on hand and for sale low. All kinds of Jewelry made to order and neatly repaired. Engraving neatly executed. The highest price paid for old Gold and silver. All orders punctually attended to.

March 1850.

PACIFIC RAILROAD.

Winter Arrangement.

On and after the 20th of October, or until further notice, trains will run regularly between ST. LOUIS and FRANKLIN (Sundays excepted) connecting as heretofore with the Stages to Manchester, Ellisville, Union, Washington and Jefferson City. Time as follows, to wit:

ST. LOUIS TO FRANKLIN.

Leave St. Louis at 9 00 A. M., Reach at 11 00, A. M.,
" 4 30, P. M., " 6 30, P. M.,

FRANKLIN TO ST. LOUIS.

Leave Franklin at 6 30, A. M., Reach at 8 30 A. M.
" 2 00, P. M., " 4 00, P. M.

The above trains stop at all the way Stations.

Passengers are requested to procure tickets of the Agents, at the stations.

Extra charge for tickets purchased in the cars.

Omnibuses will leave the Planters' House, corner of Fourth and Chestnut street, half an hour in advance of each train's time, and run regularly to and from all the trains.

U. S. MAIL.—Kimball, Moss & Co.'s Daily Lines of Four Horse Post Coaches, leave Franklin on the arrival of the morning train from St. Louis and run regularly via Union to to Jefferson City. In connection with lines, West and South-west via Versailles and Warsaw, to Springfield, Mo., and Van Buren and Fort Smith, Arkansas. For through tickets, including Railroad fare, apply at the office, under the Planters' House, corner of Fourth and Chestnut street, St. Louis

L. Bertold's line of four horse Coaches, will leave Franklin every morning on the arrival of the train for Washington, connecting with the afternoon train to St. Louis. Hacking of hacks will run between Marmaco and Manchester, to and from each train.

Tickets procured at R. R. Depot, on Fourteenth st.

JAMES M. WARD, Ass't Supt.